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ABSTRACT

The goal of this training manual is to improve teaching behavior through self analysis and through self-directed behavior. Designed for use by an experienced instructor, this manual combines theories of interpersonal relations, supervisory systems, and teaching stategies in a 47-step, four-week course for either inservice or preservice teachers. Procedures and content for each of the 47 steps is outlined, beginning with a program orientation and ending with a performance evaluation by group members. Instruction consists of lecture, seminar, and practicum activities, which are provided in the manual. Lecture and seminar topics are followed up by observed practicum experience in a laboratory setting. A bibliography of 14 items is listed for the trainers. (FG)

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SYSTEMATIC AND OBJECTIVE ANALYSIS OF INSTRUCTION
Training Manual

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SYSTEMATIC AND OBJECTIVE ANALYSIS OF INSTRUCTION

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James R. Hale
R. Allan Spanjer
Portland State University
September 1972

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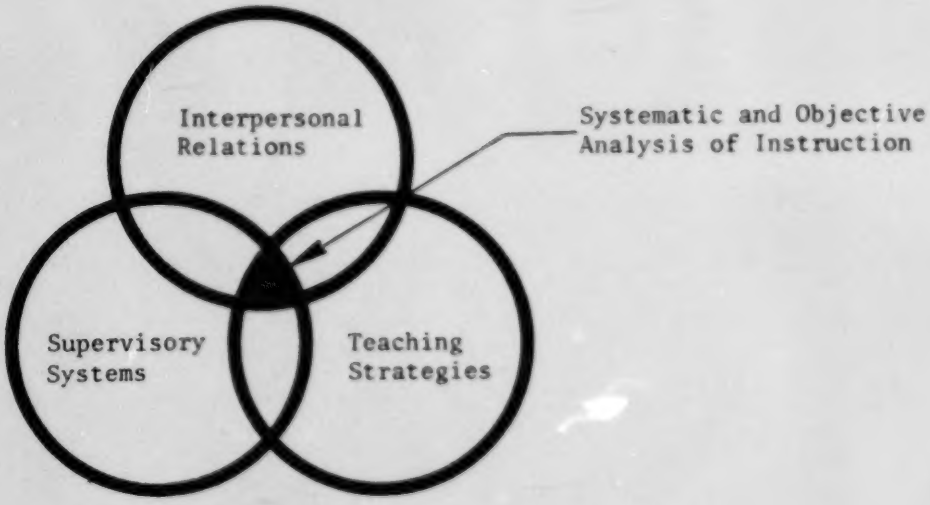
INTRODUCTION

This manual presents a carefully structured program for improving classroom teaching. The program is designed to serve preservice education students and inservice teachers desiring a means for self-improvement, as well as supervisors, administrators and educators. It will be of interest to all who are seeking ways to help teachers objectively study, analyze and improve classroom performance. The program's central theme is compatible with the ultimate goal of supervision: the facilitation of self-analyzed, self-directed teaching behavior.

The content of Systematic and Objective Analysis of Instruction has been developed from research and empirical knowledge about interpersonal relations, supervisory systems and teaching strategies. Diagrammatically, it can be illustrated as follows:



Separately, each component of this diagram serves as a source of information for the educational practitioner. Together, as illustrated, these components represent the sum and substance of this manual. They have been conceptualized into a rationale for modifying and improving teaching behavior.

Introduction

Interpersonal relations or that body of knowledge which has to do with human relations training and group experiences provides information on a means for facilitating constructive learning, growth and change. This content is essential to building a climate of freedom for personal expression, exploration of feelings and interpersonal communication. This kind of open climate is necessary for administrators, teachers and pupils to recognize and change self-defeating attitudes, test out and adopt different behaviors, and subsequently, to relate to each other in a more adequate and productive manner.

The second component, *supervisory systems*, furnishes material on approaches to improving instruction, including ways to obtain objective data on teaching behavior. A relatively new contribution in this field is "clinical supervision." It focuses upon improving classroom performance through the practice of a cyclical procedure including observation, analysis and treatment. The program incorporates information from clinical supervision and other approaches to supervision into a rationale for systematically improving instruction.

The component of *teaching strategies* serves as a source of information on empirical data collected from classroom observations and the publications of authors who have researched and studied teaching. The program draws upon this source to suggest a number of methods which can be used by teachers as a basis for identifying and developing alternative teaching behaviors.

Systematic and Objective Analysis of Instruction represents an integration of these three components: interpersonal relations, supervisory systems and teaching strategies. By studying and adapting its content, prospective and practicing educators can develop personalized frameworks to allow them to be more analytical and systematic in their approach to instructional improvement.

Systematic and Objective Analysis of Instruction is planned to enable each trainee to:

1. Demonstrate provisionally different behaviors as a means to internalizing learning

2. Demonstrate interpersonal communication skills such as paraphrasing, perception checks, behavior descriptions, describing feelings and freeing responses

3. Demonstrate increased interdependence in a group by applying the principles of effective group process

4. Demonstrate skill in establishing interpersonal relationships with others by applying the principles for building trust

5. Plan instructional objectives with a teacher which include observable pupil behavior, conditions for learning and criteria of acceptable performance

6. Observe a teaching performance and record in verbatim transcript most of the verbal and nonverbal behavior

7. Analyze the transcript from the observation for patterns of teaching and learning behavior

8. Plan strategy for a conference based on analysis of the transcript

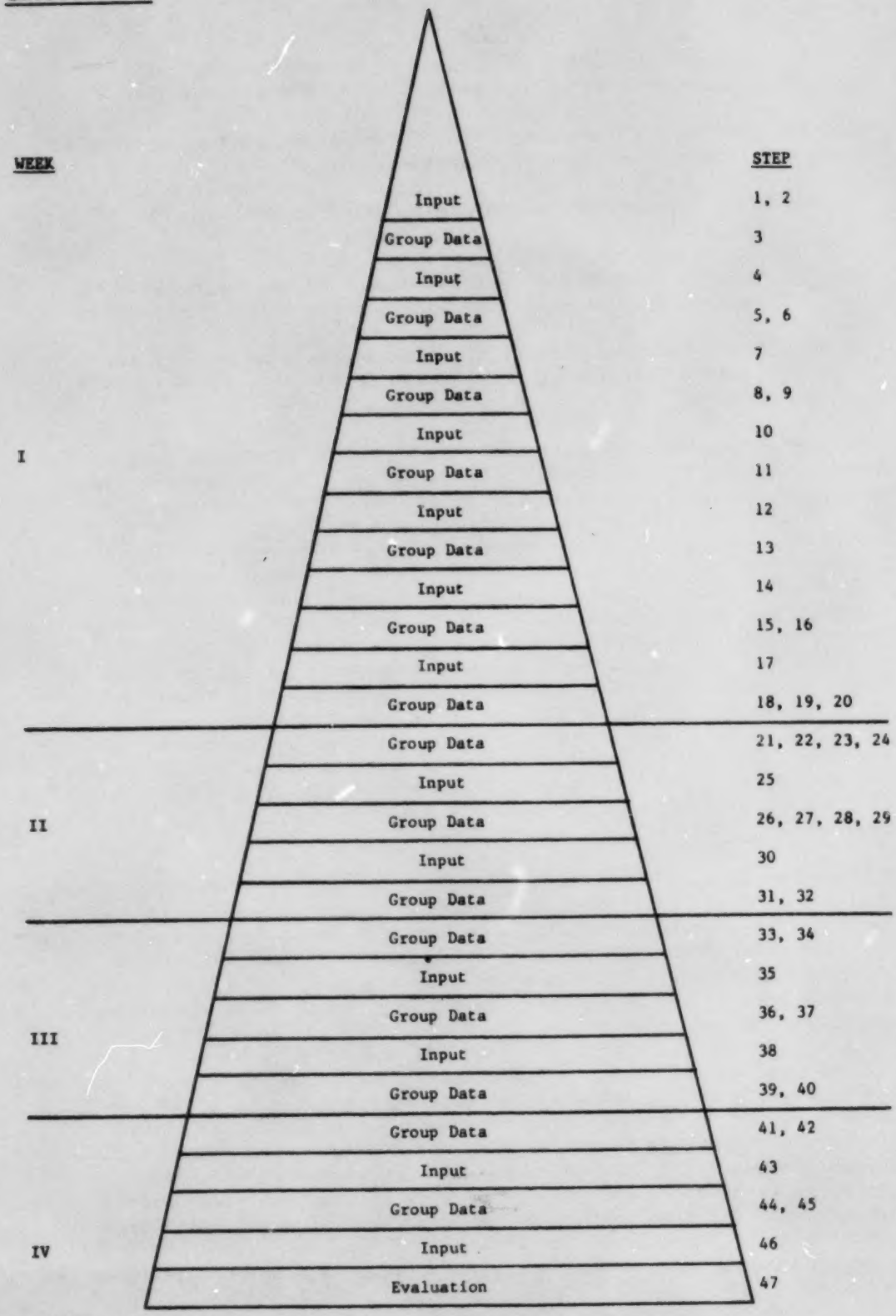
9. Conduct a conference which enables the teacher to gain insight into his teaching and possible alternative behaviors

10. Share reactions to the critical analysis of his own and other's performance in relation to the objectives of this program

The program is organized into forty-seven steps varying in length from fifteen minutes to four hours. The steps are structured sequentially as lecture, seminar and practicum activities. This arrangement provides for the continuous input and application of knowledge, resulting in a broadening base of reference information for increasingly sophisticated levels of trainee performance. (See page xii) The orientation is toward achieving group unity and increasingly higher levels of group planning and decision making, with diminishing levels of dependence on the trainer. Each lecture through Step 17 comprises all trainees involved in the program, meeting in a large group situation. The remaining seminar sessions can be conducted by the individual trainers in their regular practicum groups. Each practicum group is composed of up to ten trainees and a trainer. Each operates independently of the other practicum groups in the workshop. Therefore, it is not to be expected that each of the practicum groups will necessarily engage in the same activities simultaneously or be in the same stages of development.

Included as part of this introduction is the Systematic and Objective Analysis of Instruction Training Schedule (pages xiv-xvii). It has been designed for a workshop running four weeks in duration. Deviation from the prescribed four-week training schedule will reduce effectiveness of the program and limit attainment of the objectives. The last three weeks of this schedule require a laboratory school to be operating for the practicum sessions.

For observation purposes, the laboratory school should have at least one, and preferably two, classrooms for each practicum group in the workshop. Therefore, when possible, it is recommended student and/or intern teachers working with master teachers be available for observation in these classrooms. In the event this is not possible, volunteer novice or experienced teachers could be observed. An alternative to this procedure is for the trainees in the practicum group to take turns teaching a 30-45 minute lesson in a master teacher's classroom. The practicum group could then observe the trainee who is performing as the teacher.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Introduction

This training manual is a guide for implementing the instructional program and is intended only for use by an experienced trainer or by a person who, as a trainee, has successfully completed a workshop in Systematic and Objective Analysis of Instruction. It is divided into two color-coded sections. The blue section is information for the trainer's use only and is not to be distributed to the trainees. Most of the white pages involve material for the trainees. They should be distributed as handouts when called for in the program. Lecture diagrams from which transparencies can be made have been included for the trainer's use.

The manual contains a detailed, step-by-step training sequence. On some days several steps will be a part of the training sequence, while on other days one step will constitute the total activity for a practicum session. Included as a part of the training sequence are the program purposes, objectives, group activities, trainer information and lecture/seminar content. The objectives are cumulative for the total program. Beginning with Step One they become more inclusive and sophisticated as the program progresses.

The white section is comprised of exercises, rating scales and other informational handouts the trainees will need to complete the program. Although these trainee materials have been programed to be used at certain prescribed times, once they have been introduced they can be used again, if appropriate to goal attainment. To aid in distribution, packets containing the necessary participant materials have been prepared separately. (See page xxi for purchasing information.)

It will be necessary for the trainer to become thoroughly familiar with the contents of this program before attempting to carry out the sessions. It has been carefully designed and sequenced to produce optimum learning. Alterations of the program, or its use, should not be made without careful consideration of the outcomes.

THIS PROGRAM HAS BEEN DESIGNED TO BE USED BY AN EXPERIENCED TRAINER. UNDER NO CIRCUMSTANCES SHOULD IT BE TAUGHT BY AN INDIVIDUAL WHO HAS NOT PARTICIPATED IN A PREVIOUS WORKSHOP. A LIST OF EXPERIENCED TRAINERS WILL BE PROVIDED UPON REQUEST TO THE NORTHWEST REGIONAL EDUCATIONAL LABORATORY.

SYSTEMATIC AND OBJECTIVE ANALYSIS OF INSTRUCTION
TRAINING SCHEDULE

WEEK I

Day	Step	Time	Activities
Monday	1	8:00	Program Orientation (Total Workshop Group)
	2	8:45	Lecture: Introduction to Interpersonal Relations (Total Workshop Group)
	3	9:15	Practicum
	4	11:30	Lecture: Group Processes (Total Workshop Group)
		12:00	Lunch
	5	1:00	Practicum
		3:00	Dismissal
Tuesday	6	8:00	Practicum
	7	9:30	Lecture: Communication Skills (Total Workshop Group)
	8	10:00	Practicum
		12:00	Lunch
	9	1:00	Practicum
		3:00	Dismissal
Wednesday	10	8:00	Lecture: The Constructive Use of Feelings (Total Workshop Group)
	11	8:30	Practicum
	12	11:30	Lecture: The Interpersonal Effect of Various Responses (Total Workshop Group)
		12:00	Lunch
	13	1:00	Practicum
		3:00	Dismissal
Thursday	14	8:00	Lecture: Processes of Interpersonal Influence (Total Workshop Group)
	15	8:30	Practicum
		12:00	Lunch
	16	1:00	Practicum
		3:00	Dismissal

Systematic and Objective Analysis of Instruction
Training Schedule

Day	Step	Time	Activities
Friday	17	8:00	Lecture: A Model for Systematically Improving Instruction (Total Workshop Group)
	18,19,20	8:30	Practicum
		12:00	Dismissal

During the last three weeks the laboratory school will be in session. The laboratory school operates in the morning, Monday through Friday, for the practicum. The seminar sessions can be held immediately following the practicum or later in the afternoon on Tuesdays and Thursdays.

WEEK II

Day	Step	Time	Activities
Monday	21,22	8:00	Practicum
		12:00	Dismissal
Tuesday	23,24	8:00	Practicum
		12:00	Lunch
	25	1:30	Seminar: Planning (Practicum Group)
		3:00	Dismissal
Wednesday	26,27,28	8:00	Practicum
		12:00	Dismissal
Thursday	29	8:00	Practicum
		12:00	Lunch
	30	1:30	Seminar: Unstructured (Practicum Group)
		3:00	Dismissal
Friday	31,32	8:00	Practicum
		12:00	Dismissal

Systematic and Objective Analysis of Instruction
Training Schedule

WEEK III

Day	Step	Time		Activities
Monday	33	8:00	Practicum	
		12:00	Dismissal	
Tuesday	34	8:00	Practicum	
		12:00	Lunch	
	35	1:30	Seminar:	Systematic Analysis of Teaching Performance (Practicum Group)
		3:00	Dismissal	
Wednesday	36	8:00	Practicum	
		12:00	Dismissal	
Thursday	37	8:00	Practicum	
		12:00	Lunch	
	38	1:30	Seminar:	Strategy and the Conference (Practicum Group)
		3:00	Dismissal	
Friday	39,40	8:00	Practicum	
		12:00	Dismissal	

WEEK IV

Day	Step	Time		Activities
Monday	41	8:00	Practicum	
		12:00	Dismissal	
Tuesday	42	8:00	Practicum	
		12:00	Lunch	
	43	1:30	Seminar:	Unstructured (Practicum Group)
		3:00	Dismissal	

Systematic and Objective Analysis of Instruction
Training Schedule

Day	Step	Time	Activities
Wednesday	44	8:00	Practicum
		12:00	Dismissal
Thursday	45	8:00	Practicum
		12:00	Lunch
	46	1:30	Seminar: Problems and Issues in Improving Instruction and Supervision (Practicum Group)
		3:00	Dismissal
Friday	47	8:00	Practicum: Evaluation
		12:00	Dismissal

TRAINER'S BIBLIOGRAPHY*

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Rogers, Carl R. "A Plan for Self-Directed Change in an Educational System," Educational Leadership 24: 717-731; May 1967.

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Shepard, Clovis R. Small Groups: Some Sociological Perspectives. San Francisco: Chandler Publishing, 1964.

Thelen, Herbert A. Dynamics of Groups at Work. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1963.

*No bibliography for trainees is included in this manual. Instead, many of the handouts contain bibliographical references which can serve as resource material for the trainees.

MATERIALS LIST

	Source	Cost
Systematic and Objective Analysis of Instruction Training Manual	Commercial-Educational Distributing Services P. O. Box 3711 Portland, Oregon 97208	$10.00
Systematic and Objective Analysis of Instruction Participant Materials	Commercial-Educational Distributing Services	$ 7.00

NOTE: No "special" equipment is necessary for this training design. However, as noted in the Introduction, the training schedule for the last three weeks requires a laboratory school be operating for the practicum sessions.

STEP 1

PURPOSE

To provide a structural framework of the program format and content for trainee security.

ACTIVITIES

Program Orientation: 45 minutes

1. Opening remarks
2. General overview of program
3. Systematic and Objective Analysis of Instruction Trainee Program Schedule, pages 5-7
4. Group and room assignments
5. Introductions
6. Trainee assignment

   Directions for Trainee's Daily Log, page 8

   Trainee's Daily Log, page 9

OBJECTIVES

The trainees will:

1. Identify the purpose of the program
2. Identify the format of the program as defined by the schedule

TRAINER'S INFORMATION

It is to be expected at least some of the trainees will be apprehensive about the nature and objectives of this program. The overview is designed to provide some information on its purpose and content, the general structure of the Trainee Program Schedule, and the various assignments for groups and individuals. In addition, the Trainee's Daily Log is introduced during this period. The trainer should emphasize the log as a daily record; the form should be completed individually at the end of each day's session. It is not to be collected. Periodic reminders of its use to trainees may be necessary.

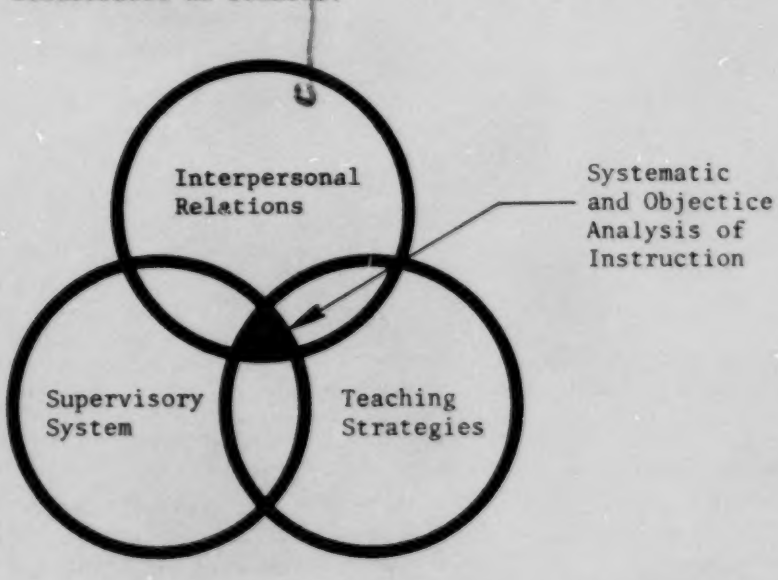
The trainer who presents this information should follow the sequence of activities as listed under Program Orientation, pages 2-4. Special note should be made of the "Do-Look-Learn" model of instruction used in the learning approach to this program.

PROGRAM ORIENTATION

1. Opening Remarks: The senior trainer should make any opening remarks preliminary to actually initiating the program. These remarks may cover such topics as registration (if offered for college credit), words of welcome, appropriate acknowledgments and other miscellaneous items, including building restrictions on smoking, coffee and lunch arrangements and parking. Introduction of the trainers will come during a later part of the Program Orientation.

2. General Overview of Program: Spend a few minutes presenting a brief overview of the program content and learning model for Systematic and Objective Analysis of Instruction.

   Systematic and Objective Analysis of Instruction is composed of three components: *Interpersonal Relations, Supervisory Systems and Teaching Strategies*. Content from each of these three areas has been utilized to create an instructional program for the improvement of instruction. Diagrammatically, it can be illustrated as follows:



   In the area of *Interpersonal Relations*, the program consists of content related to group process, communication skills, use of feelings, behavior change and developing trust.

   The *Supervision* content consists of a rationale based upon interpersonal principles of consultation. It is looked upon as a helping process designed to facilitate self-analyzed, self-directed teaching behavior.

Program Orientation

The third content area, *Teaching Strategies*, provides information on models of teaching behavior. If a teacher wants to change systematically and with some degree of objectivity he needs models of behavior on which to base change. From the literature and also from empirical data, various models are suggested which a teacher can adapt and use for changing his behavior.

This program is much unlike the kind of learning experience usually encountered by students in a formal class. Traditionally, the learning approach has been to adhere to an instructional method that entails:

"LEARNING--LOOKING--DOING"

As learners we usually learn about something--a principle or model or strategy--then look at someone else as he applies the principle or model, or demonstrates the strategy. We observe another person performing the operation. Eventually, as learners, we have a chance to do it ourselves, to practice applying the phenomenon we have learned about. If you think back to your own teacher preparation program, you would probably agree it was much like the "learn--look--do" method. You supposedly learned about teaching and observed others as they taught before you ever did any teaching on your own.

The instructional method used in this Program is of a different order; this approach entails:

"DOING--LOOKING--LEARNING"

As learners in this program, you'll first become involved by doing something, by performing as yourself in a small group working on certain tasks and attempting to achieve certain objectives. As you are experiencing these "doing" activities, you will begin looking at the group and yourself, looking at what and how the activities are being done. From this procedure of looking at what and how you are doing, you will be learning about group processes, communication skills, individual and interpersonal behavior. Gradually, you will learn about analyzing and improving teaching performance. In essence, these learnings are the goals for Systematic and Objective Analysis of Instruction.

As a complement to the "do--look--learn" method and small groups, there will be regularly scheduled lectures and seminars to present information which can help you look more critically at the activities in your groups. The Trainee Program Schedule illustrates this lecture, practicum and seminar pattern of activities.

3. Trainee Program Schedule: Distribute the schedule and indicate the practicum sessions are small groups. The lectures for Week I are large group sessions. The seminars for the last three weeks

will be conducted by each trainer in the practicum groups. Explain that the first week of this program will be held in the present location. Beginning with the second week (Step 21), the remainder of the program will be held in the laboratory school unless both locations are the same. Respond to questions the trainees may have about the schedule.

4. Group and Room Assignments: Distribute a handout including each trainer's name with a listing of those trainees who compose his group, together with the room assignments. Explain the location of each room.

5. Introductions: Introduce each trainer so the trainees can identify them with their group assignment.

6. Trainee Assignment: Before moving into Step 2 on the Program Schedule, inform the trainees of their one, formal assignment due in Step 44. Each trainee is required to write a short paper (about four pages) that represents a personal analysis and evaluation of his growth in the program. The criteria for this self-analysis and self-evaluation are the objectives of this program (Step 17). To aid trainees in writing this paper, distribute the Trainee's Daily Log and Directions for the Trainee's Daily Log, pages 8-9. Allow a few minutes to read the Log and Directions. Note that each trainee will receive only one copy of the Trainee's Daily Log; it should be used as a guide. Each trainee will maintain the log for his own use. It is not to be turned in at any time during the program. Respond to questions about the assignment.

7. Bibliography: No bibliography as such is provided for distribution to the trainees. The various handouts include references to books and periodicals which can be used by the trainees as additional sources of information.

SYSTEMATIC AND OBJECTIVE ANALYSIS OF INSTRUCTION
TRAINEE PROGRAM SCHEDULE

WEEK I

Day	Time	Activities
Monday	8:00	Program Orientation (Total Workshop Group)
	8:45	Lecture: Introduction to Interpersonal Relations (Total Workshop Group)
	9:15	Practicum
	11:30	Lecture: Group Processes (Total Workshop Group)
	12:00	Lunch
	1:00	Practicum
	3:00	Dismissal
Tuesday	8:00	Practicum
	9:30	Lecture: Communication Skills (Total Workshop Group)
	10:00	Practicum
	12:00	Lunch
	1:00	Practicum
	3:00	Dismissal
Wednesday	8:00	Lecture: The Constructive Use of Feelings (Total Workshop Group)
	8:30	Practicum
	11:30	Lecture: The Interpersonal Effect of Various Responses (Total Workshop Group)
	12:00	Lunch
	1:00	Practicum
	3:00	Dismissal
Thursday	8:00	Lecture: Processes of Interpersonal Influence (Total Workshop Group)
	8:30	Practicum
	12:00	Lunch
	1:00	Practicum
	3:00	Dismissal
Friday	8:00	Lecture: A Model for Systematically Improving Instruction (Total Workshop Group)
	8:30	Practicum
	12:00	Dismissal

STEP 1
5

Trainee Program Schedule

WEEK II

Day	Time	Activities
Monday	8:00	Practicum
	12:00	Dismissal
Tuesday	8:00	Practicum
	12:00	Lunch
	1:30	Seminar: Planning (Practicum Group)
	3:00	Dismissal
Wednesday	8:00	Practicum
	12:00	Dismissal
Thursday	8:00	Practicum
	12:00	Lunch
	1:30	Seminar: Unstructured (Practicum Group)
	3:00	Dismissal
Friday	8:00	Practicum
	12:00	Dismissal

WEEK III

Monday	8:00	Practicum
	12:00	Dismissal
Tuesday	8:00	Practicum
	12:00	Lunch
	1:30	Seminar: Systematic Analysis of Teaching Performance (Practicum Group)
	3:00	Dismissal
Wednesday	8:00	Practicum
	12:00	Dismissal
Thursday	8:00	Practicum
	12:00	Lunch
	1:30	Seminar: Strategy and the Conference (Practicum Group)
	3:00	Dismissal
Friday	8:00	Practicum
	12:00	Dismissal

Trainee Program Schedule

WEEK IV

Day	Time	Activities
Monday	8:00	Practicum
	12:00	Dismissal
Tuesday	8:00	Practicum
	12:00	Lunch
	1:30	Seminar: Unstructured (Practicum Group)
	3:00	Dismissal
Wednesday	8:00	Practicum
	12:00	Dismissal
Thursday	8:00	Practicum
	12:00	Lunch
	1:30	Seminar: Problems and Issues in Improving Instruction and Supervision (Practicum Group)
	3:00	Dismissal
Friday	8:00	Practicum: Evaluation
	12:00	Dismissal

DIRECTIONS FOR TRAINEE'S DAILY LOG

For your final paper (self-evaluation of growth in relation to program objectives), you may find it helpful to recall the earlier sessions for patterns or changes. Because so much will have happened, these will seem long past. They will all blur together if you do not keep some record of the individual sessions.

The purpose of this log is to help you recall what you thought most important about each session at the time. Reviewing the log should help you sharpen what you have learned from the total experience.

The log will be more beneficial if you will heed the following suggestions.

> Write "off the cuff." Put down what occurs to you at the time. Don't worry about style; you're not preparing a manuscript for posterity.
>
> Try to avoid generalities: "A lot happened this session!" "We found how easy it is to misunderstand."
>
> Try to avoid judgments without explanation: "Very helpful." "Frustrating!" "Poor session."
>
> If you are reporting feelings, try to be specific. Rather than saying, "I was uncomfortable," say whether you felt insecure, guilty, inferior, depressed, irritated, etc. Rather than saying, "I was pleased," say whether you felt proud, competent, witty, liked, etc.
>
> REMEMBER THE LOG IS FOR YOU.

TRAINEE'S DAILY LOG

Date_____

1. Describe your role in today's session.

2. What was personally most meaningful to you about this session? If nothing, why?

   If this session was meaningful to you, why do you think this was so?

3. If anything happened that aroused strong feelings in you (pleasant or unpleasant), briefly describe it.

STEP 2

PURPOSES

To provide a base of information to which both trainees and trainers can refer in subsequent practicum group activities.

To provide a starting point for development of effective interpersonal relations and practicum groups.

ACTIVITIES

Lecture: 30 minutes
AN INTRODUCTION TO
INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS

A rationale for initiating the program by studying interpersonal relations and group behavior

An Introduction to Interpersonal Relations, Trainee Content Outline, pages 11-12

Interpersonal Relations: Objectives and Method, pages 20-21

OBJECTIVES

The trainees will:

1. Recognize the reason for initiating the program with a study of interpersonal relations and group behavior
2. Recognize certain key factors which affect interpersonal relationships
3. Recognize the relationship between intention and effect
4. Recognize the necessity for a feedback system in interpersonal relations
5. Recognize that all members of the group will share the responsibility for the way the group progresses toward the objectives

TRAINER'S INFORMATION

This lecture is designed to provide a reference base for initiating the program. It deals with key interpersonal factors which have bearing on establishing a growth-producing relationship and gives direction to the workshop.

The content is intended to be presented in lecture form to the total workshop group by one of the trainers. The trainer can best use the content to serve as a guide and adapt and vary the presentation to fit his own instructional style. He may wish to distribute the skeletal outline, pages 11-12, to the trainees so they can follow the presentation.

The trainees will be given a set of objectives and a description of the practicum group method as a concluding part of the presentation.

AN INTRODUCTION TO INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS

Trainee Content Outline

A. A teacher needs two different sets of skills:

1. Techniques and content knowledge which will enable him to teach subject matter to students

2. Interpersonal relations skills which make him more effective in dealing with others

B. Interpersonal factors which have bearing on establishing a growth-producing relationship:

1. Privacy of individual experience

2. Individual differences in biography

3. Misunderstanding is the natural state of events

4. Degree of congruence among intention, action and effect

5. The meaning of an interaction depends upon the relationship

AN INTRODUCTION TO INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS*

Teaching is a process by which a change agent, the teacher, helps another person, the pupil, to change. The behavior the teacher may be influencing is the way the pupil approaches an algebra problem, or the way he uses a foreign language, or his own language, or the way in which he lives and works with others, but the teacher is changing behavior. The effectiveness of the teacher in changing pupil behavior depends largely upon the kind of relationship he can establish with the learner. The relationship between teacher and pupil is a special kind of interpersonal relationship. The teacher, therefore, needs to develop special skills that go beyond the techniques of imparting knowledge of subject matter.

Two different sets of skills a teacher must have are: (1) the techniques and content knowledge which enable him to provide his students with subject-matter information, and (2) the interpersonal relations skills which make him more effective in dealing with others--his students, colleagues or social contacts. Learning and applying the skills of interpersonal relations are different from learning the content of chemistry, algebra or language courses. One can solve academic problems relatively well whether feeling joyous, angry, resentful or anxious. An individual's functioning may be affected somewhat by his emotional state, but he will still be able to perform. However, the teacher will not be able to provide the warm, understanding concern for the student which establishes a maximally effective learning environment if he feels guilty, anxious or resentful.

The attempt within the practicum groups will be to provide opportunities for learning and applying some of the skills of interpersonal relations as they affect the teaching-learning process. At one level in the process is the teacher-pupil relationship. Another level may be reached by adding a fellow teacher, a supervisor or an administrator who wishes help in developing his skill in dealing more effectively with others. In this capacity, the person is a helper attempting to aid another person in the way he helps others to change. The basis of the approach as a helper is as a specialist in using one's self--in learning how to relate to others.

No book can teach skills in human relations. It develops only from contact with another person. To the extent that it does not become natural, spontaneous and genuine, it becomes a bunch of gimmicks. The end result is, instead of developing good human relations, more problems are created for yourself and the other person. The behavior you want to develop, therefore, must be your own. It must be genuine; it must be sincere; it must come spontaneously. However, many people are spontaneous and sincere, but also very destructive in their effect on other people. One can't merely say, "The important thing is to be yourself." In many cases the self he knows would not be helpful.

*Adapted from lectures by John L. Wallen at the Clinical Supervision Institute, Portland State University, Portland, Oregon, 1965.

An Introduction to Interpersonal Relations

Certain kinds of behavior will usually get constructive results while others will produce destructive results. Certain kinds of behavior have a greater chance of promoting the growth of the student and others probably will inhibit the student.

One may say, "If people know something about these ways of acting and something about the verbal skills required, why not tell the learner what to do? Tell him the constructive ways of acting. Tell him how to create a growth-producing relationship." However, if another person were to tell the learner how to do the job, it wouldn't be his behavior. He would be reciting lines which he did not fully understand. It would not be spontaneous; it would not be genuine. The end result then, would be to destroy his own ability to innovate and to respond creatively in a wide variety of situations. On the other hand, why not leave him on his own to discover these various ways of behaving with his students? That would take forever, and it would ignore all of the research in education and psychology which deals with effectiveness in human relations. The effort that has gone into this research demands the information be applied.

In order to learn interpersonal skills, it is necessary to create a situation in which the learner takes responsibility for developing his own natural style of promoting growth in other people. This is the reason for structuring the practicum groups in the workshop. Within the groups, each member will at times be the learner, at times the helper. At times each will be receiving feedback that will enable him to see himself and the way he affects others; at times he will be providing information to others about themselves and how he perceives them.

How can a situation be created in which the learner will be enabled to change himself toward increased effectiveness? The first thing to recognize is that the learner simultaneously wants to change and is fearful of being changed. Each of us has an investment in the way he has learned to do things. The first thing that happens when a group of teachers get together and begin to talk about problems, is that each indicates how he handles difficult situations in an effort to demonstrate his competence. All persons have a vested interest in the way they get along with others. To continue doing what one has learned to do is easier, safer and more rewarding than striking out into the unknown. Not changing is easier than risking possible failure.

For example, groups of professional counselors sometimes talk about a case situation. Each person tells how he would handle it, yet he subsequently says how inadequate he feels in his job; how he wishes he had improved techniques. Fifteen minutes earlier, however, group members would have defended the techniques they brought with them. Human beings are afraid of change. On the other hand, they want change

and expose themselves to it. Therefore, a situation must be created in which the learner's desire to change and grow is strengthened and his fear of change is weakened. Now, how is this done?

To build a relationship in which a desire to change and grow is strengthened and fear of change is weakened is to create a "trust" relationship. That term will appear many times during the coming week. "Trust" provides a safe relationship in which the learner is free to express his feelings of doubt, uncertainty, hostility, inadequacy and excitement. It is a situation in which, because there is trust, he can receive clear and accurate information about the effectiveness of his performance.

This workshop will provide experience in some of the basic aspects of interpersonal relations. The following five factors have proven important in establishing a growth-producing relationship.

The first factor is the privacy of individual experience. Each person is the only one who will ever directly experience his feelings, his thoughts, the way he sees the world. Each person, in short, is an expert in at least one thing; his emotional reaction to the world. By contrast, the teacher has to accept the fact that he does not know how the student feels. He cannot experience the student's feelings. How many times this is violated with husbands or wives, with students and with others.

> "I know that you're really very angry right now."
> "I'm not angry."
> "Well, you certainly are! Don't tell me you're not angry!"

Who's the expert here? He's the expert. I can tell him how I feel. I'm the expert in how I feel, but not in how he feels. This is what is meant by the privacy of individual experience. The other person's experience is private. It is not public knowledge. This is a pretty simple and obvious statement. But it will be ignored many times in the coming group sessions.

A second factor is individual differences in biography. There would be no problem in direct access to inner feelings if each individual were alike. The assumption could be made that each would feel the same in any given situation. Even though an individual couldn't feel the other's feelings, he would be pretty accurate in knowing them. But that assumption is untenable because each person has a different biography. Each grew up with different kinds of parents, in different social class backgrounds, with more or less siblings--an older brother or sister, or without an older brother or sister--one may have lost a parent by death, or the family he grew up in was divorced. It is obvious that the biography each person brings to his interaction with other people

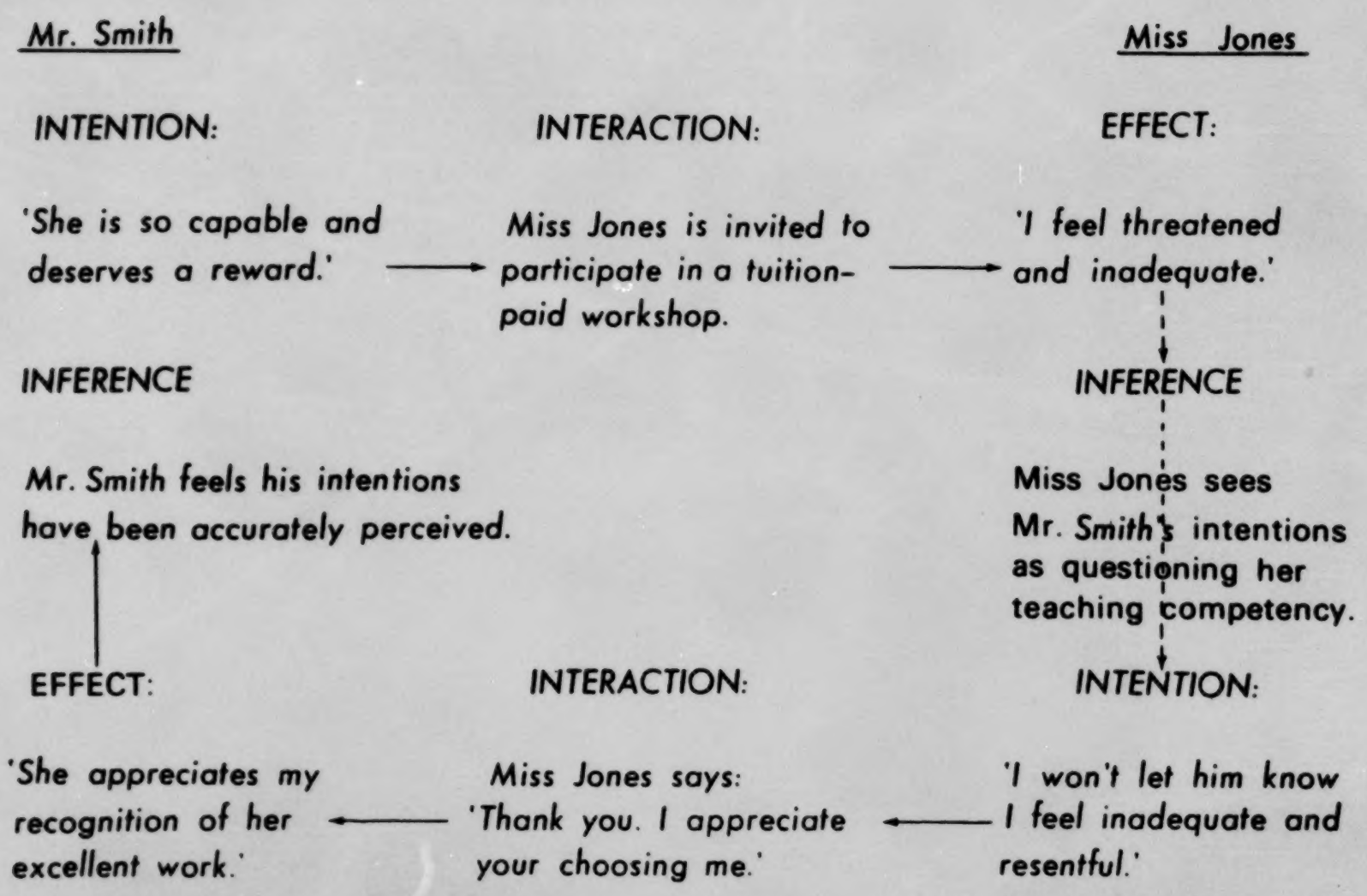
is different. Basic problems in interpersonal relations result from people with different biographies, not feeling each other's experience, yet somehow having to interact in a constructive way.

These differences in individual experience and biography create a problem in communication. They can be illustrated by a third factor in interpersonal relations, that is, misunderstanding is the natural state of events. This communication is very clumsy. It is no accident that in interpersonal relations, misunderstanding often occurs. Conflict is the result of this misunderstanding. Most people hold the viewpoint, "If misunderstanding occurs, something has gone wrong." Another viewpoint is, "You should be grateful for the times you understand someone and the times you are understood. You should not, however, be surprised and unduly unhappy about the times you misunderstand. That is the natural state of affairs with human beings who have the particular capacities that we do."

A fourth factor in interpersonal relations is the congruence between what a person intends by his actions and the effect of his actions on others. The key terms used in attempting to make sense of interpersonal relations are "intentions," "actions" and "effect." It is a fact that people will say, after a given action has produced some result, "That wasn't what I meant to do. That wasn't what I intended to do." Or, "Yes, that's what I intended." In short, people look at their own behavior and decide whether it achieved what they had intended. This is what is meant by intention. Examples of intentions would be: "I would like to get to know her better." "I want him to know how much I respect him." "I hope he doesn't know what I'm thinking." These would be three examples of intentions that might be behind certain behaviors. Intentions lead to some sort of action. Action, in turn, produces some kind of effect in the other person. For example, Mr. Smith, principal of Box Elementary School, invites Miss Jones, fifth grade teacher, to be a participant in a special, tuition-paid summer workshop on teaching strategies. Mr. Smith's intention is to express recognition and appreciation for Miss Jones' excellence as a teacher. Because no one can experience an intention directly, Mr. Smith has to communicate in some kind of code--the translation of the intention into a message.

What was the action Mr. Smith engaged in? He invited Miss Jones to participate in a tuition-paid workshop on teaching strategies. The effect which was produced by that action was private to Miss Jones. She felt threatened and inadequate. She jumped to the conclusion that Mr. Smith had doubts about her teaching competency, that he thought she wasn't doing a good job and needed some special help. We now have a message which has been decoded to indicate a different intention than was behind it. Mr. Smith wanted to show his appreciation of Miss Jones' work, and to reward her. The end result was that Miss Jones felt threatened and inadequate. The overall interaction looks that way, but take a minute to examine it more closely. (See diagram on the RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN INTENTION AND EFFECT, page 17)

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN INTENTION AND EFFECT


Mr. Smith
Miss Jones
INTENTION:
INTERACTION:
EFFECT:
'She is so capable and deserves a reward.'
Miss Jones is invited to participate in a tuition-paid workshop.
'I feel threatened and inadequate.'
INFERENCE
INFERENCE
Mr. Smith feels his intentions have been accurately perceived.
Miss Jones sees Mr. Smith's intentions as questioning her teaching competency.
EFFECT:
INTERACTION:
INTENTION:
'She appreciates my recognition of her excellent work.'
Miss Jones says: 'Thank you. I appreciate your choosing me.'
'I won't let him know I feel inadequate and resentful.'

Mr. Smith realizes his behavior has produced an effect, but he has to infer it, whereas Miss Jones knows the effect directly. What was Mr. Smith's inference? His inference was based upon the return action in which Miss Jones said, "Thank you, I appreciate your choosing me." This action of "thank you" now produces an effect in Mr. Smith. It leads him to infer, "My message was delivered. I wanted to show her I recognize her excellent work. I invited her to attend a workshop and she recognizes my appreciation." In actual fact, the effect was one of threat. Because this was not reported, miscommunication occurred.

This model shows the need for a feedback system to help a person determine the effects of his actions on others. Through the use of feedback, he can steer by the consequences of his behavior. People change their behavior on the basis of the consequences produced by it. The inadequacy in social relations is an inadequacy in feedback. Individuals continually miscue the other person, giving him false information, false feedback. Then, they wonder why he doesn't understand them. One of the questions group members will be experimenting with in this program is, "What are the ways of helpfully giving feedback to another person so a more effective interpersonal relationship can be formed?"

A fifth factor is that the meaning of any interaction depends upon the relationship. In order to talk about what is appropriate behavior in any given situation, a person first must say, "What's the relationship that exists?" Then, when the relationship is known, the appropriate interaction can be discussed.

The more fully established the relationship of trust, the less need to worry about the kind of interactions. An individual gets more leeway to be himself. The less trust there is, the more careful and cautious he needs to be in the relationship. When someone is being very careful and cautious in his relationships, this is a telegraphic message that says, "I don't feel safe. I don't trust you."

In summary then, five key interpersonal factors have been examined which bear on the establishment of a growth-producing relationship.

1. Privacy of individual experience
2. Individual differences in biography
3. Misunderstanding is the natural state of events
4. Congruence among intentions, actions and effects
5. The meaning of any interaction depends upon the relationship

An Introduction to Interpersonal Relations

This program in systematic and objective analysis of instruction initially provides an opportunity to explore and study the significance of these interpersonal factors. It increased sensitivity to teaching another person skills in interpersonal relations. Now, what are the aims, for this first week?

DISTRIBUTE HANDOUT on Interpersonal Relations: Objectives and Method.

This inquiry into interpersonal relations has three objectives for each person:

1. To increase understanding of groups
2. To improve interpersonal skills
3. To increase understanding of one's own interpersonal style and its effect on others

The groups will offer anyone who wishes, the opportunity to get information about the impact of his behavior on others, and the chance to learn what he does that impairs or improves relations with others.

Look at the statements under "Method" on the handout. Each participant is assigned to a small group that meets together throughout the entire workshop. The group has no person titled "Leader" or "Chairman." All members share responsibility for the way they progress toward achieving the objectives listed above.

The trainer in each group serves as a group consultant who does not lead the discussion. He attempts to help each individual develop increased interpersonal sensitivity by considering what is happening "here and now" in the group.

The group decides its own topics, makes its own ground rules, studies its own interactions. The group can carry out any kind of activities or discuss any topics the members agree will help them progress toward the objectives listed above.

The data studied in this process of inquiry will be the group's interactions. When a member sits down in a circle and someone says, "Well, what do we do now?" he has begun generating data for use in the small groups.

INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS:
OBJECTIVES AND METHOD

> To understand himself, man needs to be understood by another. To be understood by another, he needs to understand the other.
>
> Thomas Hora

To improve our relations with others, we need "to see ourselves as others see us." Only from finding the effect of our behavior on others can we learn whether we are impairing or improving our relations with them. Feedback information, although crucial, is too seldom available in everyday life. Through the study of interpersonal relations and group behavior each participant, if he wishes, has an opportunity to secure feedback information. Thus he is able to increase his understanding and skill in getting along with others.

Members of this group will study their immediate experience as they interact with others in an effort to attain the following objectives.

Objectives

1. To increase your understanding of:
   a. How groups grow and individuals develop interdependence
   b. What makes a group effective or ineffective
2. To increase your skill in:
   a. Understanding other's ideas and feelings; decreasing damaging misunderstandings through skillful paraphrasing and checking responses
   b. Communicating your own ideas and feelings in ways that help others understand you as a person
   c. Dealing with misunderstandings
3. To increase your understanding of:
   a. Ways you communicate messages you are not aware of--how others see you differently than you see yourself
   b. Messages you respond to that others did not send--how you tend to misread other people
   c. How feelings influence behavior--your own as well as others'
   d. What kinds of behavior improve and impair your relations with others

0 1 40

Interpersonal Relations: Objectives and Method

Method

Each trainee is assigned to a small group that meets together throughout the entire program. The group has no person titled "Leader" or "Chairman." Therefore, all members share leadership responsibility for the way they progress toward achieving the objectives listed on the previous page.

The staff member in each group serves as a group trainer who does not direct or chair the group. He attempts to help the trainees develop increased interpersonal sensitivity by assisting them in considering what is happening "here and now" in the group.

The group decides its own topics, makes its own ground rules and studies its own interactions. The group can carry out any kind of activities or discuss any topics the members agree will help them progress toward the objectives.

STEP 3

PURPOSES

To provide a starting point for developing interpersonal relations skills.

To provide an opportunity for group interaction which will lead eventually to an effective group climate.

To provide an opportunity for the group to make decisions.

To provide an experience in which each trainee can begin to look at his own and other's behavior. Consequently, to gain an increased understanding of: Ways he communicates messages which are not intended; How others see him differently than he sees himself; How he responds to messages that others did not send; How he tends to misread other people; How feelings influence behavior; How some behavior improves and other behavior impairs relationships.

ACTIVITIES

Practicum: 2 1/4 hours

Begin by presenting Group Agreements, page 27, as a possible focus for group interaction

Allow group to interact in an essentially unstructured manner toward attainment of objectives

Close by administering and collecting Decision Making Procedures Check List, page 28 and Group Atmosphere Check List, page 29

OBJECTIVES

The trainees will:

1. Make decisions, either planned or by default
2. Generate data about the interaction of a particular group
3. Examine group process in relation to the handout on objectives of interpersonal relations training
4. Demonstrate some sensitivity to considering what is happening here and now in the group
5. Recognize that group interaction effects group atmosphere
6. Recognize that group agreements about behavior expected of group members contribute to group functioning
7. Recognize ways in which decision making procedures vary
8. Characterize personal feelings about group atmosphere by identifying specific objectives

STEP 3

TRAINER'S INFORMATION

Distribute Group Agreements as a starting point for Step 3. Allow a few minutes for the trainees to read, then direct their attention to the "Task" at the bottom of the handout. It is suggested the trainer reiterate the task and then withdraw unobtrusively from the interaction. He should focus his attention on completing his general activities, including:

Keeping a record of events (recording verbal interaction, describing behavior, etc.)

Asking the group to examine process in relation to the objectives and previously presented material (See Guidelines for Group Trainers, pages 24-25)

Helping the group to analyze individual and group processes "Here and now"

Providing composite summary feedback on group activities

During this and subsequent steps, the trainees will usually experience difficulty in determining what they are supposed to do in the practicum. They will tend to not understand or to disregard the objectives. Occasionally, it will be necessary for the trainer to intervene by suggesting the group examine what it is doing in relation to the objectives. This is a procedure consistent with the Do-Look-Learn model of instruction.

It is difficult to predict how a group may react. (See Growth of Groups, page 26). The group may ignore the suggested Group Agreements, adopt them immediately without further consideration, or carry on considerable discussion. However, whatever the group does is a decision and employs some decision making process. Furthermore, some kind of atmosphere will be created during the session. In addition to the decision on Group Agreements, one frequent action is a decision to introduce themselves. Remember, a decision can be made by default.

The group will undoubtedly experience difficulties in group process. This data, along with the decision and atmosphere data, provide a natural opening for the group processes lecture which follows.

Conclude the session by administering and collecting DECISION MAKING PROCEDURES CHECKLIST and GROUP ATMOSPHERE CHECKLIST.

GUIDELINES FOR GROUP TRAINERS

If the trainees are to gain optimum feedback and knowledge of results from their experience, a climate of openness, trust and experimentation must prevail in the group. The trainer is instrumental in helping the group achieve this "freeing" climate.

In performing this role, the trainer will maintain a record of events, contribute conceptual information, administer certain exercises and intervene to assist the trainees in analyzing group process and progress toward objectives. Several of the times the trainer should intervene are defined to some extent in the text of this manual. Other times for intervention are less specific. In general, however, the trainer should intervene only when he knows what he is doing and why. Overintervention in the group may lead to unrealistic dependency on the trainer and less active trainee participation. On the other hand, underintervention may result in insufficient analyses of group process and work toward objectives. As a rule, the frequency of intervention is governed by the kind of interaction in the group. Accordingly, the trainer should formulate possible alternative interventions and then intervene as appropriate. Some guidelines for certain kinds of interventions are suggested as follows:

1. Trainees get acquainted by introducing themselves. Possible alternative interventions include:

    a. Suggesting the trainees may want to evaluate the procedure in terms of objectives
    b. Asking if the introductions served the purpose for which they were intended
    c. Asking how the decision was reached to introduce themselves

2. The topic under discussion does not lead to objectives. Possible alternative interventions include:

    a. Asking why the group has been discussing this particular problem
    b. Asking how this particular topic leads to achievement of objectives
    c. Asking how the group got into this discussion or decided to talk about this topic

3. The group jumps from one topic to another. Possible alternative interventions include:

    a. Asking how the group got on this topic when earlier the topic was so and so, etc.
    b. Asking what it is about the group that prevents them from sticking to a topic

4. The group wants or decides to select a leader. Possible alternative interventions include:

    a. Asking how the selection of a leader will further progress in learning about group process
    b. Asking if the designation of a leader would help or impair the sharing of leadership responsibility by all members

5. A member's personality is analyzed or he is "picked on" by the group. Possible alternative interventions include:

    a. Asking if the reactions being given are beneficial to the behavior of the member under consideration and to the group as a whole
    b. Asking how the analysis of individual behavior will facilitate group progress toward objectives
    c. Suggesting the importance of ensuring consensus for this procedure (Does this action apply to all members?)
    d. Suggesting, if personal behavior is to be discussed, the framework of discussion should be planned beforehand

6. Remarks which prevent the group from doing work or utilizing feedback. (Members bind the group by saying, "I was confused by the wording in this rating scale." "I was tired and my markings are inaccurate.") Possible alternative interventions include:

    a. Asking what effect these types of remarks have on utilizing group data for analysis of process
    b. Suggesting the remark is an important one for members to understand and deal with in using feedback information

7. Members form subgroups or cliques outside the group. Possible alternative interventions include:

    a. Asking what tensions are present in the group that have led to private discussions on the outside
    b. Suggesting discussions in subgroups on the outside may have important implications for the group

8. Periods of silence in the group.

    a. Depending on reasons producing the silence, take advantage of a period of silence as an opportunity to introduce new process considerations

GROWTH OF GROUPS*

While there is no set pattern which characterizes the growth of groups, sometimes four phases can be distinguished as a group grows in the ability to operate effectively. In the first phase various members of the group quickly attempt to establish their customary places in the leadership hierarchy. This is sometimes viewed as establishing the "pecking order" of the group. Typical of this phase are the introductions which originate in the beginning stages of many groups and make known each member's professional status.

The second phase generally consists of a period of frustration and conflict which is facilitated through the trainer's rejection of the pecking order concept, and conversely, promotion of a more equalitarian atmosphere. Characteristic of this phase is the idea that all members share leadership responsibility for the way the group progresses toward the objectives.

The third phase sees the development of cohesiveness among the members of the group accompanied by some complacency and smugness. It seems to be characterized by a determination to achieve and maintain harmony at all costs, resulting in an atmosphere of "sweetness and light." This phase is unstable and unrealistic since conflict would seem to be a more natural group condition.

In the fourth phase the members retain the group-centeredness and sensitivities which characterized the third phase, but they develop also a sense of purpose and an ability to deal openly and effectively with task and process problems which confront the group.

*Adapted from Leavitt, Harold J. and Louis R. Pondy, (editors). Readings in Managerial Psychology. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1964, page 383.

GROUP AGREEMENTS

A group functions better if members are clear about what kinds of behavior they expect of each other as group members.

Here are some samples of agreements a group might make.

1. Confidentiality: When talking with people who are not members of this group, I understand that I may report anything that happens in the group if I do not name or identify individual members in connection with incidents that might embarrass or reflect unfavorably upon them.

2. Directness: If I am dissatisfied with the way the group is going, I will report my reactions directly to the members when it is in session.

   If another member tells me of his dissatisfaction outside of a regular session with the group, I will suggest that he bring up the matter at a regular session.

3. Survey: Any member may ask for a survey at any time. The requesting member states what he wants to know from the total group. Others then paraphrase or clarify the topic until all are clear what they are being asked. Each person briefly states his current position on the topic in two or three sentences.

   A survey is not a vote. It does not bind the group or its members.

   A survey must be taken at the time it is requested; it suspends any other activity.

TASK: Your group should now discuss and decide:

1. Whether you wish to make any group agreements

2. If so, what they shall be

DECISION MAKING PROCEDURES CHECK LIST*

Circle the numbers preceding the procedures actually used for making decisions during this session. Decisions may refer to topic selections, procedures for discussion, whether to give feedback, introductions, etc.

GROUP COMPOSITE

_____ 9. Thought and Feeling Consensus: Unanimity

_____ 8. Near Consensus: Either with reservation, "I'll go along," or dissent of one or two members

_____ 7. Problem Census: Brainstorming followed by selection from alternatives

_____ 6. Majority Support: One or two more than half the members give support

_____ 5. Minority Support: Tacit agreement or lack of disagreement by the majority

_____ 4. Handclasp: Support of one or two members leads to action

_____ 3. Topic Jump: Drifting or shifting of topic without explicit deliberation and decision

_____ 2. Self-Authorized Decision: One person initiates; action follows by implicit consent or no overt disagreement

_____ 1. Plop: Suggestion not picked up by group; results in decision by default not to consider proposal

*Adapted from Weschler, I.R. and E. H. Schein, Issues in Human Relations Training. Washington, D.C.: National Training Laboratories, National Education Association, 1962, page 67.

GROUP ATMOSPHERE CHECK LIST*

Circle the words that best characterize this group session.

GROUP COMPOSITE

_____	Rewarding
_____	Sluggish
_____	Cooperative
_____	Competitive
_____	Play
_____	Work
_____	Fight
_____	Flight
_____	Tense

*Adapted from Weschler, I. R. and E. H. Schein, Issues in Human Relations Training. Washington, D.C.: National Training Laboratories, National Education Association, 1962, page 68.

STEP 4

PURPOSES

To provide a base of information to assist trainees in recognizing characteristics of effective groups.

To provide a base of information for examination and analysis of group processes.

To provide a base of information for establishing an effective group.

ACTIVITIES

Lecture: 30 minutes
GROUP PROCESSES

An introduction to the principles of effective group processes

How to Recognize an Effective Group, pages 37-39

Group Processes Self-Correcting Exercise, pages 40-41

OBJECTIVES

The trainees will:

1. Distinguish between process and content in group interaction
2. Recognize principles of effective group process
3. Interpret simulated group situations by supplying the principles of effective group process

TRAINER'S INFORMATION

The lecture provides information for examining group process in terms of certain principles. The content is intended to be presented in lecture form to the total workshop group. Each trainer can best use the content as a guide; he should adapt and vary the presentation to fit his own instructional style.

The Group Processes Self-Correcting Exercise should be presented to the trainees at the conclusion of the presentation. The purpose of this exercise is to allow the trainees to assess their own understanding of the content. They should complete it on their own time. They may or may not want to discuss the exercise in the practicum group. In either case it is not the trainer's responsibility to initiate the discussion.

GROUP PROCESSES*

Whenever people come together to form a group, such as the practicum groups in this program, a system has been created. The question that needs to be asked is: "Will this system be effective or ineffective?" But, the question is not: "Is it to be a system?" By virtue of their presence, a system has been created in which each component or part affects every other component or part. Putting it in terms of these groups, what each person does influences what the others are doing. At the same time, what each person does has been influenced by the others. In short, interdependency exists among members of the group.

At this point, two components of group interaction can be distinguished. One component is the content of what the group's discussion is or the task before it. What are the problems to be solved? What is to be done? What is the group supposed to accomplish? That becomes the task. However, this task always takes place in the setting of a certain kind of process. The difference between process and content can be seen easily by the following example.

If someone asked a principal and teacher what they talked about following the principal's observation, they might say, "We were talking about the teaching performance." That's the task content. Another teacher who overheard them talking might say, "Oh, I thought you were having an argument." He is referring to the process. There are many different ways the principal and teacher may talk about the teaching performance. They may talk about it by shouting at each other, by making accusations, by being rational and deliberate or by joint examination. The way they talk about it is the process. The topic itself is the content. We might say, then, that the content or task is the what of any interaction, and the process is the how of the interaction.

One of the first problems that occurs when people come together in an interpersonal system is the problem of recognizing and accepting their interdependence. This is the type of problem that two porcupines have on a cold night. They want to get close enough together to keep warm, but not so close they get stuck. This is the problem a new group has when it forms. The members want to get close enough together to get comfortable and feel safe, but not so close that they lose their freedom, or have to conform to someone else's way of doing things. All groups start with this dilemma. No matter what the content is, the process is one of attempting to answer such questions as: "How safe is it for me to be myself in this group? Will this group attempt to coerce

*Adapted from Lectures by John L. Wallen at the Clinical Supervision Institute, Portland State University, Portland, Oregon, 1965.

me to be like the rest? Can I influence what the group does or will they influence me? Do I have to be perfect in this group? Or, will it be used against me if I admit inadequacies or weaknesses?" A person brings all of these concerns with him to the first meeting of the group. Although members may spend considerable time in their groups discussing content relevant to the various tasks to be performed, the process behind this is finding those persons in the group each feels comfortable with, those each feels he can trust, those with a viewpoint like his, those who are willing to accept him. Or, how does each influence what the group does? How does he get them to make decisions? How does he avoid their thinking he's attempting to dominate them? Many other such matters could be called process oriented.

These are the problems a group is attempting to solve in its first series of meetings. Many groups never solve them. The same process problems occurring at the first meeting and the second meeting still are occurring in the thirtieth meeting. Why? Because they have been so concerned with content that they push all of the process problems into the margin of awareness. They never focus upon them, and consequently are at the mercy of their own process. So the questions become: "How can we develop into an effective group? How will we know when we are an effective group?"

There are nine principles of group process which can help determine when the group is operating effectively. DISTRIBUTE HANDOUT on How to Recognize an Effective Group. One way to recognize an effective group has been touched upon in an earlier discussion. That is, an effective group recognizes whatever it does, it has chosen to do. No group can avoid making decisions. A group cannot choose whether to decide, but only how to decide. Thus, an effective group makes decisions openly, rather than by default. One of the key points is that a group grows more by openly agreeing not to act than by not acting because they could not agree. By agreeing not to act, a group is being decisive. On the other hand, not acting because of a lack of agreement is a decision made by default. It leaves a group with the feeling of frustration and failure.

A second point under this first principle is the group's awareness that each decision need not be everything or nothing. It need not last forever. As a group receives additional information, it has the prerogative of changing its mind, and changing a decision reached previously. A final point regarding the first principle is that the group makes decisions in different ways depending on the kind of issue and importance of the outcome. The check list of ways in which groups make decisions (Step 3) included nine alternatives. These practicum groups probably made decisions using most of those listed. The crucial point is the complete agreement of the group on the way it chooses to make these

decisions. The trainer in each group may ask, "How did the group get on this task?" In essence he is asking, "How did the group decide to talk about this particular topic?"

Another way to recognize an effective group is that members do not ignore seriously intended contributions. How many times in a group has someone experienced what might be called "the plop phenomena?" He makes a suggestion, and says, "Why don't we do such and such." There's a momentary silence, and the group talks about something else. The person who made this suggestion needs to know: Was he irrelevant? Was he stepping on somebody's toes? Or, what was he doing? He cannot expect to improve his behavior if he does not know the group's reactions to his contributions. Rather than ignoring the suggestion, it would be more helpful if someone were to say, "Gee, that's an interesting suggestion, I think we ought to discuss it, but I'm kind of uneasy about it because there might be differences of opinion." In this instance the person receives some reaction. So, if a person is to learn to participate helpfully in a group, he needs to know the effect of his contribution. When this principle is followed, the discussion is cumulative and the group moves together. When it is not followed, group members often feel no progress is occurring.

A third way to recognize an effective group is that members check to make sure they know what a speaker means by a contribution before they agree or disagree with it. How many times in these groups, for example, have members told how they felt about an issue before they fully understood the point of the discussion? For example, someone in the group may say, "Why is it that as a group we don't make a decision on the issue before us?" Another member may respond, "I don't feel that this group is indecisive." In this case, the member reacting to the statement about making a decision is really assuming the first speaker is accusing the group of being indecisive. He has stated how he feels about the contribution before fully understanding the point being made. Understanding must precede evaluation. This is where members of the group make use of communication skills such as paraphrasing, perception checks and provisional summaries.

Fourth, each member speaks only for himself and lets others speak for themselves. Each member states his reactions as his own, and does not attribute them to others or give the impression he is speaking for them. One doesn't say, "I think this group is aimless, confused, and I am sure that everybody is disturbed about it." Instead, he says, "I'm getting increasingly upset because I don't know what we are doing." He's the one that is upset; he's the one that is confused. He might find everybody else is also, but then, he has a different feeling about it than if he had expressed it for them.

As a second part of this fourth principle, each member reports his own reactions honestly, he recognizes that unless he is true to himself the group cannot take his feelings into account. How many times has a teacher said, "My principal never gives me any credit. My principal never shares any interest in my work. Or, my principal doesn't tell me how well I'm doing." If someone said to the teacher, "Did you ever tell him you feel this way?" she probably would say, "Well, no, he just ought to know." In other words, the teacher is saying, "If I only had a mind reader for a principal." The point is that there comes a time when the teacher has to say to the principal, "You need to know how I feel about our relationship. I'm just telling you how I feel. You can do whatever you please about it, but you should know."

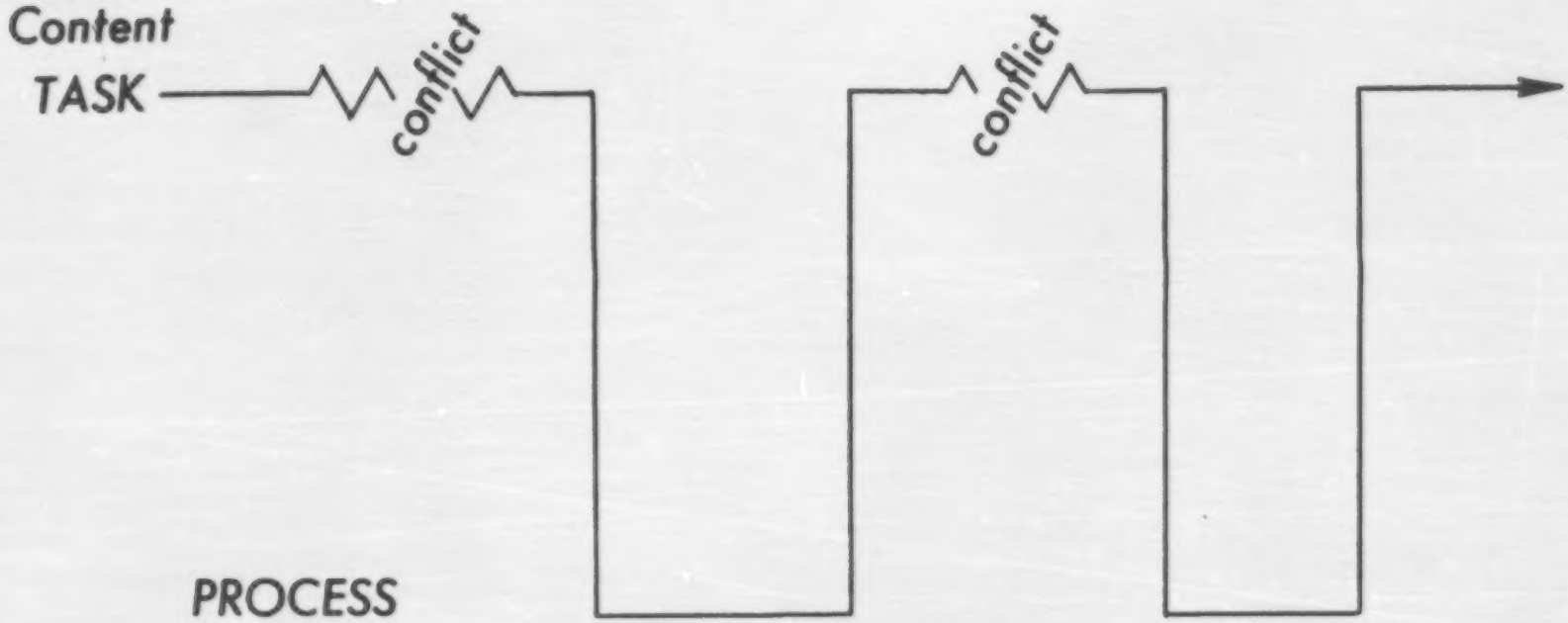
Fifth, all contributions are viewed as belonging to the group, to be used or not as the group decides. If a member of the group makes a proposal and puts it out on the table, the group owns it. It doesn't have to be defended. The group decides what to do about it. This is a particularly important principle, because it increases the number of alternatives by which a decision can be reached in a group. But, if all proposals made as a member of a group have to be defended, members will be less willing to provide information. Consequently, there will be fewer alternatives from which to make a decision. In practicing this principle, Jack's suggestion is treated as the suggestion made by Jack. The focus is on the suggestion. Jack's name is used only as a referent, not necessarily to give credit for the suggestion.

Sixth, all members participate, but in different and complementary ways. Some members fulfill task functions while others carry out interpersonal or process functions. In other words, a member might participate alternately as a group leader, an observer of the group process, an observer of progress on the task, or as group recorder. Or, at times he may be very active verbally, while at other times he may be a silent member.

Seventh, whenever the group senses trouble getting work done, it tries to find out why. A group shifts easily from working on the task to discussing its own group processes. A profile of group interaction would look something like the diagram on PROFILE OF GROUP INTERACTION, page 35.

The point being, as a group works on a task, invariably it will run into certain process problems. When this occurs, the need of the group is to work on the process problems. Once they are resolved the group returns to working on the task. As the group continues to work on the task, and again runs into process problems, it stops to resolve them and then moves back to work on the task. How does one know when there are process problems? Some symptoms are identified in the handout. Examples include suggestions that plop, a violation of effective group principle number one; private conversations which develop in subgroups; two or three people dominating group discussions. Or, there is apathetic participation and disinterest among members. Members may be attacked for things they are doing in the group, or individuals may joke and pass

PROFILE OF GROUP INTERACTION



STEP 4
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off feedback. These are symptoms of group difficulties. If a group is effective it will recognize these problems as they occur and deal with them.

Also related to principle seven is a condition called pluralistic ignorance. Each member may feel definitely about something, but thinks he's the only one feeling that way. Often, other members of the group feel the same way. Unless these feelings are expressed, the group is ignorant of information that may help in the resolution of process problems.

Eighth, the group brings conflict into the open and deals with it. The natural state of events in any relationship is conflict. The critical point, or the critical decision to be made in the group, is whether conflict will be open and subject to the group's control or be disguised and out of control of the group.

The ninth principle on how to recognize an effective group is that the group looks upon hindering behavior as happening because the group allows or even wants it, and not as the result of a problem member. Suppose one member in a group is monopolizing the conversation. The most typical reaction in a group like this is for the people who aren't talking to say, "We would have a good group if so and so didn't talk so much." In other words, they identify the problem as that member. In actual fact, the problem is a group problem. If the person who is talking a great deal were asked why he talks so much, he might say, "Because nobody is saying anything, or because other people are asking me questions." It's possible a group will seduce a member into domination and end by accusing that person of dominating the group. Whenever this happens, the real problem is not the member, but a group problem of unequal participation. This becomes a process concern with which the group must deal openly and directly.

In summary then, the choice available to members of a small group is not whether they will be a part of that group. Rather, it is the choice of whether they will be an effective or ineffective part. If the decision is to be an effective part of the group, members need to know the necessary elements of effectiveness. The nine principles just presented should help groups to become more effective.

HOW TO RECOGNIZE AN EFFECTIVE GROUP*

1. The group recognizes what it does is what it has chosen to do. No group can avoid making decisions; it cannot choose whether to decide, only how to decide. Thus, an effective group makes decisions openly rather than by default.

   When a group faces an issue, it must make a decision. It may agree openly to take action. It may agree openly to take no action. It may decide by default to take no action. Deciding by default not to act has the same impact on the problem as openly agreeing not to act. However, decisions by default are felt as failures by group members and create tensions among them. A group grows more by openly agreeing not to act than by not acting because they could not agree.

   The group views each decision as a provisional trial which can be carried out, evaluated and revised in light of experience. The group is aware each decision need not be everything or nothing and need not last forever.

   When the group makes a decision which it does not carry out, it recognizes the real decision was one not to act, although the apparent decision was to act. The group openly discusses why the apparent and real decision were not the same. They try to learn why some members agreed with the decision although they felt no personal commitment to carry it out.

   The group makes decisions in different ways depending upon the kind of issue and the importance of the outcome. The group may vote, delegate the decision to a special subgroup, flip a coin or require complete consensus. The crucial factor is the group has agreement on the way it makes decisions.

2. Members do not ignore seriously intended contributions.

   Each member needs to know the effect of his remarks if he is to improve the way he participates in the group.

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*Adapted from Thelen, Herbert A., Dynamics of Groups at Work. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1963, pages 285-289.

When other members do not respond, the speaker cannot know whether:

a. They did not understand his remark

b. They understood it and agreed with it

c. They understood it but disagreed with it

d. They understood it but thought it was irrelevant

When this principle is followed, the discussion is cumulative and the group moves together. When it is not followed, the discussion becomes scattered, the same points are made over and over, and members feel no progress occurring.

3. Members check to make sure they know what a speaker means before they agree or disagree with his contribution.

   The question, "What is it?" should precede the question, "How do we feel about it?" For example, understanding is prior to evaluation. Thus, group members frequently use paraphrasing, perception checks and provisional summaries to clarify their assumptions of what others are saying and feeling.

4. Each member speaks only for himself and lets others speak for themselves.

   Each member states his reactions as his own. He does not attribute them to others or give the impression he is speaking for others.

   Each member reports his own reactions honestly. He recognizes that unless he is true to himself, the group cannot take his feelings into account.

5. All contributions are viewed as belonging to the group, to be used or not as the group decides.

   A member who makes a suggestion does not have to defend it as his against the others. Instead, all accept responsibility for evaluating it as the joint property of the group.

6. All members participate but in different and complementary ways.

   When some members fulfill task functions, others carry out interpersonal functions. While some members are providing information, others are making sure it is understood and organized, or are identifying points of agreement and disagreement.

Each member does not participate always in the same way. Instead, he fulfills whatever function is appropriate to his interest in the task, his information and the behavior of other group members.

7. Whenever the group senses it is having trouble getting work done, it tries to find the reason.

   Some symptoms of difficulty are excessive hair-splitting, points repeated over and over, suggestions that plop and are not considered, private conversations in subgroups, two or three people dominating the discussion, members taking sides and refusing to compromise, ideas being attacked before they are completely expressed and apathetic participation.

   When such symptoms occur, the group shifts easily from working on the task to discussing its own interpersonal process.

   Discussing interpersonal process prevents pluralistic ignorance. For example, each member of the group is confused but thinks he is the only one.

8. The group brings conflict into the open and deals with it.

   The members recognize conflict as inevitable. They know the choice is theirs as to whether the conflict will be open (subject to group control) or disguised (out of control).

9. The group looks upon behavior which hinders its work as happening because the group allows or even wants it; not just as the result of a "problem member."

   A person who continually introduces irrelevancies can change the topic only if other members follow his lead. Instead of labeling him as the problem, the group considers this tactic a group problem. They determine why they all let it happen. Perhaps the other members welcome his digressions as a way of avoiding the open conflict which would occur if they stayed on the topic.

   Likewise, the person who talks too much...jokes too much... continually attacks others...or never participates, is a sign of a problem shared by the total group. The group needs to discuss it openly as "our problem" to eliminate the disruption.

   The group gives helpful information to individuals about the impact of their actions on the group. It does not, however, analyze, dissect and work them over.

GROUP PROCESSES

Self-Correcting Exercise

A. For each example of individual or group behavior described below, write the appropriate principle of effective group process. Appropriate responses are written on the back of this page.

1. Members of a group continually refer to "Mary's suggestion."

2. A group which has received additional information decides to change a previous decision.

3. The subject changes each time a member speaks.

4. A group member states he is sure the other group members feel as he does about the issue.

5. A member plays a passive role as observer and recorder in one session but takes an active leadership role in the next session.

6. A member reacts immediately to a statement which he misunderstood.

7. A member frequently criticizes the group's progress and other members refer to him as "our problem member with the negative attitude."

8. A group has met in several sessions but has been unable to make any progress in discussing the group agreements.

9. Two group members appear to be constantly in direct opposition to each other. However, other group members are hesitant to mention or discuss the situation.

B. Mark each interaction below as <u>content</u> or <u>process</u>.

1. The group is talking about ways to solve the parking problem.

2. Members of the group are reading and discussing the group agreements.

3. One member asks Bill why he seems to change the subject when Joe makes a proposal.

4. The group members make plans for the afternoon activities.

5. A member checks a point made by another member before he agrees or disagrees.

Appropriate Responses

A. 1. (Principle 5) All contributions are viewed as belonging to the group, to be used or not as the group decides.

2. (Principle 1) The group makes decisions openly; it reviews each decision as a provisional trial.

3. (Principle 2) Members do not ignore seriously intended contributions.

4. (Principle 4) Each member speaks only for himself and lets others speak for themselves.

5. (Principle 6) All members participate but in different and complementary ways.

6. (Principle 3) Members check to make sure they know what a speaker means before they agree or disagree.

7. (Principle 9) The group looks upon behavior which hinders its work as happening because the group allows or even wants it; not just as the result of a "problem member."

8. (Principle 7) Whenever the group senses it is having trouble getting work done, it tries to find the reason.

9. (Principle 8) The group brings conflict into the open and deals with it.

B. 1. Content

2. Content

3. Process

4. Content

5. Process

STEP 5

PURPOSES

To provide information relative to previous group interaction in decision making.

To expand awareness from decision making to other group processes.

To generate additional information for analysis of group processes.

ACTIVITIES

Practicum: 2 hours

Furnish group with composite totals on Decision Making Procedures Check List and Group Atmosphere Check List

Continue group interaction toward objectives

Administer and collect Effective Group Survey, page 44

OBJECTIVES

The trainees will:

1. Examine the feedback on decision making and group atmosphere
2. Compare personal perceptions of decision making and group atmosphere with those of the group
3. Describe group behavior or events which influenced their ratings of decision-making procedures and group atmosphere
4. Compare the group's interaction with the principles of group processes

STEP 5

TRAINER'S INFORMATION

The trainer can begin Step 5 by returning the composite summaries of the check lists on decision making and group atmosphere. It is suggested that the trainer introduce the session by saying, "Here are composite summaries of the Decision Making Procedures Checklist and the Group Atmosphere Checklist. The information is for the group to use in ways that will help you progress toward the objectives."

Initially the trainer may need to help the group get started by assisting them in the interpretation of the data. For example, what is it about the group that caused individuals to rate the decision making or group atmosphere check lists as they did? Describing specific situations or behaviors which influenced the ratings will provide additional process data for the groups. In any event the information is for the group to use in ways that will be profitable to the attainment of the objectives. The extent to which the trainer participates in interpreting the feedback data is regulated by the group's effort and ability to analyze and interpret its own behavior. During the early sessions the group may need more help interpreting the feedback.

ADMINISTER AND COLLECT EFFECTIVE GROUP SURVEY AT THE CLOSE OF THE PRACTICUM SESSION. It will provide an opportunity to assess group performance in relation to the principles presented in Step 4.

Although trainers need not allow time in the practicum, they should remind trainees to complete their daily log after each daily session.

EFFECTIVE GROUP SURVEY

Directions: Put a number from the following rating scale in the space before each of the items below. Choose the one which, in your opinion, best shows your reaction to other group members at this time.

---

5 = All group members
4 = All but one or two group members
3 = A majority of the group members
2 = Slightly less than half of the group members
1 = One or two group members
0 = None of this group

During the most recent session, how many group members, including yourself:

(____) 1. Helped the group make decisions openly rather than by default?

(____) 2. Gave due consideration to all seriously intended contributions of other group members?

(____) 3. Checked (by paraphrasing, etc.) to make sure they knew what was really meant before agreeing or disagreeing?

(____) 4. Spoke only for themselves and let others speak for themselves?

(____) 5. Viewed all contributions as belonging to the group, to be used or not as the group decided?

(____) 6. Had the opportunity to participate in the group if they desired to do so?

(____) 7. Tried to find the reason if the group was having trouble getting work done?

(____) 8. Helped bring conflict into the open so the group could deal with it?

(____) 9. Looked upon behavior which hindered group process as a group problem, rather than a "problem member?"

STEP 6

PURPOSES

To generate additional information for analysis of group processes.

To establish awareness of need for communication skills.

ACTIVITIES

Practicum: 1 1/2 hours

Furnish group with composite totals on Effective Group Survey

Summary of Effective Group Survey, page 47

Continue group interaction toward objectives

OBJECTIVES

The trainees will:

1. Examine the feedback on group process
2. Describe specific behavior or events which influenced ratings of group process
3. Compare personal perceptions of group effectiveness
4. Recognize the need for skills in communication

TRAINER'S INFORMATION

Prior to beginning Step 6, the trainer should compute the composite totals of the Effective Group Survey. Directions for computing the totals are as follows: Record each trainee's rating for each of the nine group principles in the appropriate column. For example, if the trainee rated principle number one, "helped group make decisions openly," as a 5, place a tally in the box under 5, opposite item number one. If he marked item number two as a 4, place a tally in the box under 4, opposite item number two. Record each trainee's rating similarly. Give each of the trainees a summary sheet so they can record the totals. This survey provides feedback on how effectively the trainees perceived the group to be functioning.

It is suggested that the trainer introduce the session by saying, "Here is a composite summary of the Effective Group Survey. The information is for the group to use in ways that will help you progress toward the objectives." If the group decides not to attend to the composite summary, then that is its prerogative. However, if the decision is by default, the trainer may want to intervene.

The results of the survey may be examined by the group in light of the specific behaviors or events which caused individual trainees to rate group process as they did. In initiating a practice session, it is recommended the trainer not summarize or put into perspective where the group is in its deliberations at this point in time. That is, don't lay out or verbalize for the group all the things (activities, topics, etc.) they have pending. This is something they can do for themselves.

Trainer's Information

After a half-hour or so of discussion, and if the group does not seem to be involved and has not given due consideration to the alternative activities which have been pending, then appropriate interventions might be:

1. How or why did the group decide to talk about this topic?

2. What happened to the other topics or activities the group was considering in the previous session? (Enumerate topics to the group.)

SUMMARY OF EFFECTIVE GROUP SURVEY

Using the rating scale from the Effective Group Survey, record a mark for each trainee's response to the questions.

	All	All but one or two	A majority	Slightly less than half	One or two group members	None
	5	4	3	2	1	0
1. Helped Group Make Decisions Openly						
2. Considered Contributions						
3. Checked Meaning of Contributions						
4. Spoke Only for Themselves						
5. Viewed Contributions as Group Property						
6. Had Opportunity to Participate						
7. Tried to Find Reason for Problems						
8. Helped Bring Conflict into Open						
9. Looked at Behavior as Group Problem						

STEP 7

PURPOSE

To provide additional background information as a base for the trainees to develop skills in understanding another's ideas and feelings and in communicating one's own ideas and feelings.

ACTIVITIES

Lecture: 30 minutes
COMMUNICATION SKILLS

Basic communication skills of:

- Paraphrasing
- Perception checking
- Behavior descriptions
- Reporting of feelings

Basic Skills for Discussing Interpersonal Relations, pages 54-58

Communication Skills Self-Correcting Exercise, pages 59-60

OBJECTIVES

The trainees will:

1. Recognize some common ways groups avoid looking at their process
2. Identify paraphrases, perception checks, behavior descriptions and descriptions of feeling
3. Recognize the purposes of paraphrasing
4. Recognize the purpose of perception checks
5. Recognize the purpose of describing feeling
6. Distinguish between a behavior description and a statement that imputes motive
7. Distinguish between expressions of feelings and descriptions of feeling

TRAINER'S INFORMATION

This lecture is designed to provide information on specific skills which can be practiced and mastered to improve interpersonal communication. The content is intended to be presented in lecture form to the total workshop group. The trainer can best use the content as a guide, and adapt and vary the presentation to fit his own instructional style.

At the conclusion of the presentation, distribute the Communication Skills Self-Correcting Exericse. Allow 5 minutes for completion before trainees return to their practicum groups.

COMMUNICATION SKILLS*

In the information presented on group process, a distinction was made between content in a group and process in a group. The content is the "what" of an interaction, or the task the group is working on. The process is the "how" of an interaction, or the way the group goes about accomplishing the task. The groups in this program are unique in that the content or task of each group is the process. In other words, the task is to focus on the process of the group as it interacts; to talk about and analyze the process as it is experienced. Most people, though, are rather uncomfortable talking about process in a group. They are accustomed to being task oriented. Task oriented means: "Let's get down to business. I'm here to learn about systematic and objective analysis of instruction, so you tell me about it." It could be that a person would gain insights about interpersonal relations by studying his own interactions in the group. A person can teach something by his very manner, by the way he approaches the student, and not just by telling him something about the content.

People studying interpersonal relations, as a result of their experiences in groups, have identified many of the common ways that groups avoid looking at their process. Some of the responses which seem to characterize groups in the beginning stages follow. First is the response of, "Let's do something, anything. I can't stand this any longer. Why don't we get on with it. Nothing has happened. I can't see anything going on here." Freely translated this means, "If we can do something, then I don't have to try to understand what's happened to us. If we can just get back to content, then I don't have to worry about the process." This same response sometimes can come out in an indirect form, "Why doesn't somebody do something?" This variation usually suggests these other people should think of something to do to get the group out of this situation. "These people must be incredibly stupid or incapable. Not me, of course, I'm just along for the ride. Probably I could be a Moses in the wilderness if I wanted to try, but this doesn't occur to me." The translation is: "This will enable me to absolve myself from any responsibility for group direction, involvement, problem solving or learning. If these others would just do something, I could have a profitable experience."

A third type of response that often occurs as a way of avoiding process is, "We need a leader. If we just had somebody that could organize us, who could give us directions, who could phrase the questions, who could keep us on the track. What we are trying to do is so complicated and difficult that we can't do it by ourselves. If we just had a leader." Meaning: "I could avoid the responsibility of helping to organize the group's actions. I don't feel safe enough to take a leadership role myself, so if we just had someone else to do it, it would make me more comfortable."

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*Adapted from lectures by John L. Wallen at the Clinical Supervision Institute, Portland State University, Portland, Oregon, 1965.

Communication Skills

Another response that often develops in the beginning phase of groups is this, "I love to watch all these others. This is terrific. It enables me to watch all these other people and the interesting reactions they have to all these situations." The meaning is: "As long as I am so interested in watching all of the others, I can avoid looking at myself and my own reactions to this."

Another kind of response is, "Isn't this fun, it is so wonderful and such fun. I'm sure it is so good for us; I'm sure we are learning a great deal. This is really dynamic. I really feel moved by this." The meaning is: "As long as I can feel this way, I don't have to look carefully at what is helpful, or not useful for certain situations. I'll just bask in the feeling of it."

Another response is, "Now come, let's be objective. Let's not look at emotions, let's not look at feelings, let's not look at perceptions--we need facts. I just came here to get the facts about systematic and objective analysis of instruction. Let's avoid looking at or dealing with anything that we can't be completely objective about." This attitude enables us to avoid looking at some of the things that might really be significant.

These examples occur over and over in groups. Although at the beginning a person is told to focus on his own experience in the group, his own behavior in relating to other people, he immediately begins to search for task content. But the task in each group is to look at the process. The task is to practice and improve the process. He can improve the process by being particularly sensitive to and analytical about how the group interacts.

As members attend to how the group interacts, they will begin to recognize some special skills which can be learned and practiced to improve the group process and make them better communicators. In other words, they will begin to ask such questions as: "How can I report feelings directly without offending other people?" Or, "How can I skillfully check out my own perceptions about other people?" "How can I make accurate behavior descriptions and avoid making accusations in the group?" "How can I communicate more effectively so that other people understand me?" The handout on Basic Skills for Discussing Interpersonal Relations provides information for answering these questions and improving communication. DISTRIBUTE HANDOUT

The outline of communication skills shows four kinds of behavior which are important in effective group process. The term "group" can refer to a two-person group. Where there are two or more people together, there is a group. This can apply to a principal and teacher talking, to a supervisor and supervisee talking, to a small group in a committee meeting, to a teacher and his pupils.

Communication Skills

If these people, whatever the size of the group, are to have effective control of their own processes, four kinds of verbal skills or communication skills are required.

The first skill is the ability to paraphrase. An individual tests his understanding of another's comment by trying to put it into his own words. He doesn't just repeat what was said, but changes it, transposes it, and gives an example to make it more specific than originally stated. Paraphrasing sometimes is confused to mean making statements like, "What you are trying to say is; or, what you mean to say is; or, what you really mean is so and so." In effect, these statements are unskillful types of paraphrases which give the impression of saying for the other person what he can best say for himself. Paraphrasing is a skill for reporting the present level of understanding to the other person, not to speak for him.

There is an example of paraphrasing on the handout. Sam says, "Joe is unfit to be a principal." A poor paraphrase would be for the other person to say, "You think he is not right for the job." This paraphrase is too general because the people involved still do not know what is meant by the term "unfit." It gives only the illusion of understanding. A better paraphrase would be to say, "You mean that Joe is disorganized?" This is more specific. Sam might answer, "No, Joe is well organized but he doesn't involve others in decision making." Thus, this paraphrase leads to a clarification of the way Sam is using the word "unfit." Paraphrasing is particularly important in an interaction because it helps in understanding what the other person is saying. It relates to the group principle which says understanding precedes evaluation in interaction with others.

The second skill is perception checking. The person whose intentions are being translated never knows what effect his behavior has on the other person. He must read the cues. It is a matter of inference, it is indirect. The end result is that one thinks he knows what the other is feeling, but without a perception check, he can't really know. For example, Joe may look bored to death, but a person shouldn't say, "Why are you so bored with me, or why do you get bored so easily, Joe?" This question assumes he already knows. Instead, he should check that perception by saying, "I get the impression that you are bored with me now. Am I correct?" Joe might say, "No, it's very hot in here and I'm uncomfortable. It really doesn't have anything to do with you." Thank goodness this person found that out before he made a lot of other assumptions and got the whole situation into a mess. A good perception check conveys this message, "I want to understand your feelings, is this the way you feel about it?"

Other Examples

A person may make a perception check by saying to another, "You feel disappointed that nobody commented on your suggestion." The other might say, "No, not at all, I would just as soon forget I said it." Then, he knows what the other individual is really thinking. A perception check identifies the other's feelings in some way--disappointed, pushed out of line. It does not express disapproval or approval of the feelings. It merely conveys how the feelings are understood. A perception check is actually a form of paraphrase, but it's a paraphrase about feelings which can be misread by the receiver. Perceptions of another person's feelings often result more from inner feelings, fears or wishes, than from the other person's expressions. Thus, if one feels guilty, he may perceive others as angry or accusing toward him. Inferences about other people's feelings can be and often are inaccurate. It is important to check them out. First, perception checking responses conveys a desire to understand the other as a person, that means understanding his feelings. Second, it helps avoid regrettable actions which may be based on false assumptions of what the other is feeling. Paraphrase and perception check are two skills which can be practiced to help in understanding the other person.

There are also two skills which can help the other person understand. One of these is behavior description. The aim of a behavior description is to let others know to what behavior an individual is responding. Describe it clearly enough that they know what has been observed. To do this, the person must describe evidence that can be seen, behavior that is open to anyone's observation. For example, he might say, "Bob, you seem to take the opposite of what Harry suggests today." This is observable data. He wouldn't say, "You're just trying to show Harry up." Bob may not be trying to show Harry up at all. Bob may be very excited about what's occurring and can't contain himself. This is not a description but an accusation of unfavorable motives. Another example of behavior description would be, "Sam, Jane had not finished her statement." Not, "Sam, you deliberately didn't let Jane finish." The word "deliberately" implies Sam knowingly and intentionally cut her off. All anybody can observe is that he did cut Jane off. To develop skill in describing behavior, an individual must sharpen his observation of what actually occurs. As this is done, he may find many of his conclusions are based less on observable evidence than on his own feelings of irritation or insecurity.

A second skill in helping others understand a person is a description of feelings. Make clear what feelings are being experienced by naming or identifying them in some way. Such statements must refer to "I, me or my" and specify some kind of feeling either by name, simile or figure of speech. In the handout a distinction is made between the expression of feeling and the description of feeling. Expressions of feeling may come

from any number of different emotions. As a result, they might be misread. It is important that feelings be described if others are to understand accurately what is being felt.

An expression of feeling may be indicated by a person blushing. The feeling behind the expression could be any number of things. It could mean the person feels embarrassed, pleased, crushed, annoyed or just plain hot. Unless he describes his feelings, however, it is difficult to know what the expression of blushing really means. A second example: To accuse another person of talking too much is an expression of feeling. It's indirect, but it is an expression of feeling. If the person is asked to describe his feelings behind the accusation, he may say he is bored, or wants to say something himself, or even, that he feels inferior at how much the other person knows. It's difficult to know what the expression means unless the person can describe the feeling.

The aim in the description of feelings is to start a dialogue that will result in an improvement of the relationship with the other person. Others need to know what is felt if they are to take feelings into account. Negative feelings are indicator signals that something may be going wrong in a relationship with another person. They are a signal that the two involved need to check for misunderstanding in communication. After discussing how each sees a situation, one may discover his feelings resulted from a false perception. In this case his feelings would probably change. On the other hand, the other person may discover his actions are arousing feelings he wasn't aware of and consequently, he may change. In short, describing feelings should not be an effort to coerce the other person into changing to avoid his own inner feelings. Rather, as a report of the inner state, it is one more piece of information necessary if the two are to understand and improve their relationship.

In summary, paraphrase and perception check are attempts to insure the communication is accurate. They guard against acting on the basis of false assumptions of what others are saying and feeling. Behavior descriptions and describing feelings are ways of reporting data which can help others understand an individual. By practicing and perfecting these four skills, a person can improve his group process and relationships with other people.

BASIC SKILLS FOR DISCUSSING INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS*

1. SKILLS IN UNDERSTANDING THE OTHER PERSON

A. Making sure you understand the ideas, information and suggestions of others.

PARAPHRASE: You state the other's idea in your own words or give an example that shows what you think he was talking about. A good paraphrase is usually more specific than the original statement.

Example: Sam said, "Joe is unfit to be a principal."

Paraphrase A: "You think he's not right for the job?"

(Too general. If Sam agrees with it, you will not know what he means by "unfit." You have the illusion of understanding.)

Paraphrase B: "You mean that Joe is disorganized?"

(Specific. Sam might answer, "No. Joe is well organized but he doesn't involve others in decision making." Thus, this paraphrase leads to a clarification of the way Sam is using the word "unfit.")

You can get the other person to clarify by asking, "What do you mean?" or by saying, "I don't understand." However, when you paraphrase, you show what your present understanding is. Thus, you enable him to address his clarification to the specific misunderstanding you have revealed.

Before you agree or disagree with a remark, you should make sure you understand it. Paraphrase is one way of testing if the remark you are responding to is really the message being sent.

B. Making sure you understand the feelings of others.

PERCEPTION CHECK: You state what you perceive the other person to be feeling. A good perception check conveys the message, "I want to understand your feelings--is this (a statement of his feelings) the way you feel about it?"

*John L. Wallen, Portland, Oregon. 1965. (mimeo)

Examples: "Am I right that you feel disappointed that no one commented on your suggestion?"

"Did you feel pushed out of line by what Kim just said?"

"I get the impression you are angry with me. Are you?"

"I'm not sure whether your expression means my comment hurt your feelings, irritated you or confused you."

Note that a perception check identified the other's feelings in some way, "disappointed," or "pushed out of line." It does not express disapproval or approval of the feelings. It merely conveys, "This is how I understand your feelings. Am I accurate?"

Your perception of another person's feelings often results more from what you are feeling, are afraid of, or are wishing that from his words, tone, gestures or facial expressions. Thus, if you feel guilty, you may perceive others as angry or accusing toward you. Our inferences about other people's feelings can be, and often are, inaccurate. It is important to check them out. Perception checking responses aim to convey that you want to understand the other as a person (his feelings) and help you avoid regrettable actions based on false assumptions of what the other was feeling.

2. SKILLS IN HELPING OTHERS UNDERSTAND YOU AS A PERSON

A. Helping others understand what you are responding to.

BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION: Your aim is to let others know what behavior you are responding to by describing it clearly and specifically enough that they know what you observed. To do this you describe evidence that can be seen--behavior open to anyone's observation.

You should avoid attributing unfavorable motives, intentions or character traits to others. Restrict yourself to describing specifically what they did.

Examples: "Bob, you seem to take the opposite of whatever Harry suggests today."

(NOT: "Bob, you're just trying to show Harry up." This is not a description but an accusation of unfavorable motives.)

"Jim, you've talked more than others on this topic. Several times you cut off others before they had finished."

(NOT: "Jim, you're too rude!" This names a trait and gives no evidence.)

(NOT: "Jim, you always want to hog the center of attention!" This imputes an unfavorable motive.)

"Sam, Jane had not finished her statement."

(NOT: "Sam, you deliberately didn't let Jane finish." The word "deliberately" implies Sam knowingly and intentionally cut her off. All anybody can observe is that he did cut her off.)

To develop skill in describing behavior, you must sharpen your observation of what actually did occur. As you do, you may find many of your conclusions are based less on observable evidence than on your own feelings of irritation, insecurity, or fear. Thus, accusations are usually expressions of feelings.

B. Helping others understand what you are feeling.

DESCRIBING YOUR FEELINGS: You make clear what feelings you are experiencing by naming or identifying them. The statement must refer to "I," "me" or "my," and specify some kind of feeling by name, simile or figure of speech.

Because describing feelings is so often confused with expressing feelings, it is important to make the difference clear.

Expressions of Feeling	Descriptions of Feeling
Person blushes but says nothing.	"I feel embarrassed."
	"I feel pleased."
	"I feel crushed."
	"I feel annoyed."

Basic Skills for Discussing Interpersonal Relations

Expressions of Feeling	Descriptions of Feeling
Person suddenly becomes silent.	"I feel angry." "I'm worried about this." "I feel like I've been slapped."
"She's a wonderful person!"	"I'm in love with her." "I enjoy her." "I respect her abilities."
"You talk too much!"	"I'm bored." "I want to say something." "I feel inferior at how much you know."
"Shut up!!"	"I feel hurt by what you said and afraid to hear any more." "I feel angry at myself!" "I feel angry with you."
"Can't you ever be on time?"	"I'm irritated with you that I had to wait so long in the cold!" "I've been worried for fear you might have had an accident!"
"Damn you!!!"	"I'm furiously angry with you!" "I'm worried about you and I wish I didn't have to be!" "I like you and resent you at the same time."
"You shouldn't have bought me such an expensive gift!"	"I really like it!" "I feel obligated to you and resent it." "I feel inferior when I think of the cheap present I gave you."
"Jim, you are too rude and overbearing."	"Jim, I'm irritated." (Behavior description: "You keep cutting me off.")

Basic Skills for Discussing Interpersonal Relations

Feeling is expressed through commands ("Shut up!"), questions ("Why can't you ever be on time?"), accusations or judgments about traits and motives. ("You talk too much!" "She's a wonderful person.") In addition, feelings are expressed without words by blushing, sighing, crying, becoming silent and keeping another waiting. Any expression of feeling may come from a number of different feelings. Thus, expressions of feeling are apt to be misread. Hence the importance of describing your feelings--which is less ambiguous--if you want others to understand accurately.

The aim in describing your feelings is to start a dialogue resulting in an improvement of your relationship. After all, others need to know how you feel if they are to take your feelings into account. Negative feelings are indicator signals that something may be going wrong in a relationship with another person. To ignore negative feelings is similar to ignoring a warning light in an electrical circuit that indicates the circuit is overloaded. Negative feelings are a signal the two of you need to check for misunderstandings and faulty communication. After discussing how each of you sees the situation, you may discover your feelings resulted from a false perception of the situation and motives. In this case, your feelings would probably change. On the other hand, the other person may discover his actions are arousing feelings he wasn't aware of and he may change.

In short, describing your feelings should not be an effort to coerce the other into changing so you won't feel as you do. Rather you report your inner state as one more piece of information necessary if the two of you are to understand and improve your relationship.

COMMUNICATION SKILLS

Self-Correcting Exercise

I. To the left of each example of a communication skill put your interpretation as to whether it is a:

A. PARAPHRASE
B. PERCEPTION CHECK
C. BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION
D. DESCRIPTION OF FEELING

____1. "Are you referring to the difference between Al's thoughts and his actions?"

____2. "After hearing you say that, I feel put down."

____3. "Did that remark hit you wrong?"

____4. "John, each time Nancy starts to say something you get up and get a drink."

____5. "I feel pretty guilty about the whole thing now."

____6. "Would riding a bike in a 50-mile-an-hour wind be an example?"

____7. "Do you feel sort of left out at this point?"

____8. "You have changed the topic three times now while someone was in the middle of expressing his feelings, Tom."

II. An effective paraphrase usually:

A. Is more specific than the original statement
B. Expresses approval of feelings
C. Shows your present level of understanding
D. A and B
E. A and C

III. An effective perception check usually:

A. Conveys approval of the other's feelings
B. Is more specific than the original statement
C. States what I perceive the other to be feeling
D. Clarifies what the other is trying to verbalize
E. All the above

IV. Describing feelings is an interpersonal skill which should be seen as:

A. A way to coerce the other into changing so you won't feel as you do
B. A means of making the other feel as you do
C. A way of reporting your inner state which can provide information for improving the relationship
D. A and B
E. B and C

V. Identify each of the following statements as either <u>descriptions</u> or <u>expressions</u> of feeling:

_____1. "I feel crushed."
_____2. "She's a wonderful person."
_____3. "I feel like I've been slapped."
_____4. "I'm irritated with you that I had to wait so long."
_____5. "Can't you ever be on time?"

VI. In the following examples, distinguish between a behavioral description and a statement that imputes motive or makes accusation:

1. "You enjoy pushing people around, don't you?"

_____

2. "I noticed on the last three exercises that you have taken the leadership and assigned roles for each member of the group."

_____

Appropriate Responses

I. 1. (A) Paraphrase
2. (D) Description of feeling
3. (B) Perception check
4. (C) Behavior description
5. (D) Description of feeling
6. (A) Paraphrase
7. (B) Perception check
8. (C) Behavior description

II. (E)

III. (C)

IV. (C)

V. 1. Description
2. Expression
3. Description
4. Description
5. Expression

VI. 1. Imputes motive or makes accusation
2. Behavior description

STEP 8

PURPOSES

To broaden the base of understanding of self and group behavior.

To allow practice of specific communication skills.

ACTIVITIES

Practicum: 2 hours

Continued interaction with focus on developing communication skills

Exercises to provide practice in communication skills (OPTIONAL), pages 63-65*

Administer Group Perception Survey, page 66

OBJECTIVES

The trainees will:

1. Demonstrate the use of communication skills
2. Distinguish between the skills that help them understand others and the skills that help others understand them
3. Examine composite summaries of group perception survey
4. Identify areas where personal estimates are different from actual perceptions

TRAINER'S INFORMATION

In this activity and the one following, practice of communication skills may be done as a part of regular group process or as a formal exercise. The optional exercise is provided to facilitate the practice of specific skills in case the group has difficulty applying them during normal interaction. Groups usually have a difficult time in describing feelings and behavior. In some cases they may ignore these skills altogether.

ADMINISTER THE GROUP PERCEPTION SURVEY AFTER ABOUT ONE AND ONE-HALF HOURS OF GROUP INTERACTION. Each trainee should complete the survey individually. Then, as a group, tally the actual number of "yes" responses for each question. Each trainee should compute his estimate scores in terms of whether he was over or under the actual count. Discussion should follow.

*Optional exercises are not required to be completed in the program. All other exercises, activities, rating scales, etc., not marked optional are to be done as a part of the program. In Step 8 the optional exercise is provided as trainer information to be used if the group evidences a need to practice any of the communication skills. The exercises can be used subsequently in the program as needed.

EXERCISES IN COMMUNICATION SKILLS

Paraphrase

Paraphrase is the "ticket of permission" to speak. Before speaking a participant must paraphrase the previous speaker's contribution to the speaker's satisfaction. To be effective as an exercise, the speaker must make sure the person paraphrasing really understands what he means and is not just parroting back words.

Variations to the exercise may be added. For example, after paraphrasing, a speaker can be limited to 15 seconds of participation. A second variation is before anyone speaks twice everyone must have spoken once; before anyone speaks three times everyone must have spoken twice.

The exercise can be practiced for a specified time. Group members then report their feelings, reactions and conclusions from the experience.

Perception Check

Group adopts alter-ego ground rule. Any member may report what he thinks is the inner state of another after identifying that he is speaking as an alter-ego for that person. The other person will indicate whether his inner state has been correctly perceived.

Example:

Joe: "Alter-ego for Bill. 'I'm really tickled that Jane told Hank off.'"

Bill: "You're right. I was annoyed with Hank but I was afraid to say anything, so I was delighted when Jane told him what she felt."

Behavior Description

The skill of describing observable behavior requires the participants to observe behavior (e.g., I notice that you raise your eyebrows whenever a participant expresses a feeling) and to discriminate between observable behavior and implied feelings.

Task:
The task is to observe several simulation skits by the group members. Ask for volunteers to help with the demonstration. The emphasis is (1) on nonverbal clues and (2) on observing interaction between persons in the skits. Once the skits are over, the teacher or leader asks the group members for descriptions of behavior seen in the skits and writes these descriptions on the board. Group members then examine the statements to see if they describe actual behavior. Beware of accusations that are mistaken for descriptions of behavior.

Procedure:
The group members put on simulation skits (examples below) in which they participate as themselves dealing with the themes of the behavior description.

1. Member B attempts to carry on a conversation with A. A never lets B finish a sentence or complete a thought but cuts in every time B starts talking. However, after A finishes, he waits for B to start again.

2. Member A tries to talk with B who in nonverbal ways shows that he is bored. However, B talks and says he is very interested.

3. Member B is talking with A who nonverbally shows that he is very angry and upset. When asked, however, A keeps saying he is not angry or disturbed.

Description of Feelings

The objectives in this exercise are to learn to focus on and identify one's own feelings; to develop skill in describing feelings directly in noncoercive ways; to develop increased sensitivity to the feelings of others by an awareness of the various indirect or disguised forms of expression in which feelings may appear.

Procedure:
1. Any trainee describes a real or fictional situation. Others focus on what they would have felt in such a situation and attempt to describe their feelings. Trainees should try to present the group with a wide variety of situations.

2. In Step 1 trainees may limit themselves to responding in similes or metaphors.

3. Group brainstorms to discover meaningful similes for describing various kinds of feelings.

   "To feel elated is to feel like..."
   "To feel defiant is to feel like..."
   "To feel rejected is to feel like..."

   The wilder the simile the better. The more unusual the better. The aim is to stretch one's imagination and gain increased freedom in responding to feeling states.

4. Any trainee describes a feeling and the others translate it into indirect expressions, or vice versa.

   If you felt annoyed with someone for burning the meat but didn't want to say so directly, how might it come out in an indirect expression? "How long did you cook this meat?" or "Were you busy this afternoon?"

   What descriptions might lie behind this indirect expression?
   "Do you think it's a good idea to use the encyclopedia while you're eating a jam sandwich?" (I wish you wouldn't...but I don't want you to be angry.)

GROUP PERCEPTION SURVEY

Answer all questions on the basis of the most recent session of this group.

				Actual number of YES		Over- or under-estimate	
1.	Did you have enough opportunity to talk during this session?	YES ( ) NO ( )					
1A.	Estimate how many in this group (counting yourself) marked YES to Question 1		( )	( )	-	( )	1
2.	Are you satisfied with the attention and consideration the group gave to your comments?	YES ( ) NO ( )					
2A.	Estimate how many in this group (counting yourself) marked YES to Question 2		( )	( )	-	( )	2
3.	Do you think this group has an "ingroup" to which you feel you do not belong?	YES ( ) NO ( )					
3A.	Estimate how many in this group (counting yourself) marked YES to Question 3		( )	( )	-	( )	3
4.	Did you have feelings of irritation or impatience as a result of what was going on in the group that you did not openly describe?	YES ( ) NO ( )					
4A.	Estimate how many in this group (counting yourself) marked YES to Question 4		( )	( )	-	( )	4
5.	Did you feel hurt, embarrassed or put down by somebody without letting the other know?	YES ( ) NO ( )					
5A.	Estimate how many in this group (counting yourself) marked YES to Question 5		( )	( )	-	( )	5
6.	Did you agree with or like something another member said or did without letting the other know?	YES ( ) NO ( )					
6A.	Estimate how many in this group (counting yourself) marked YES to Question 6		( )	( )	-	( )	6
7.	Do you think the staff member was helpful to this group during this session?	YES ( ) NO ( )					
7A.	Estimate how many in this group (counting yourself) marked YES to Question 7		( )	( )	-	( )	7
8.	Was the experience and learning you gained from this session well worth the time, effort and cost?	YES ( ) NO ( )					
8A.	Estimate how many in this group (counting yourself) marked YES to Question 8		( )	( )	-	( )	8

STEP 8
66

STEP 9

PURPOSES

To generate additional information for analysis of group processes.

To increase opportunity for conflict and frustration to provide readiness for the lecture on The Constructive Use of Feelings.

To provide the opportunity for the trainee to receive feedback on how he is perceived by others.

ACTIVITIES

Practicum: 2 hours

Continued group interaction toward the objectives

Friendly Helper Exercise (OPTIONAL), pages 69-70*

Close session with administration of Group Expectation Survey, page 71

OBJECTIVES

The trainees will:

1. Give each other feedback through verbal interaction or the Friendly Helper Exercise
2. Demonstrate increasing sensitivity and openness to feedback
3. Demonstrate increasing skill in reporting observable behavior as a means of giving feedback

TRAINER'S INFORMATION

Feedback for the group may come from the Friendly Helper Exercise if used, or from data generated in regular group interaction. The focus for this Step is on how the individual perceives the group and how the group perceives him. The exercise, Friendly Helper, is especially useful as a means for helping the trainees discuss their perceptions.

*Optional exercises are not required to be completed as a part of the program. The Friendly Helper Exercise is a vehicle for giving and receiving feedback. It can be used or not used at the trainer's discretion. Different ways to use it are as follows:

1. Distribute it at the start of the practicum and say nothing. As such, it represents one more piece of information for the group to decide whether or how to use it.
2. Hold the exercise in reserve. If group members want to give and receive feedback and are searching for ways to do it, suggest the exercise as a means. The exercise can be used in the same manner in subsequent steps, if needed.

STEP 9

Trainer's Information

One method for carrying out the exercise is for the trainer to draw the triangle on the board. The group should arrive at a consensus about each member's characteristics by placing his name on the triangle. An alternative is for each trainee to rate every other member on paper. They then share their ratings. The group can choose one of these methods or use any other method to help them achieve the same goal.

This exercise is a good indicator of the degree of openness that exists in the group. The more open groups generally complete this exercise as a group task in which all members arrive at a verbal consensus regarding the behavior of each individual and place him on the triangle. This method provides maximum feedback to individuals. Less open groups tend to do this individually, with each member rating every other member on paper and then supplying the rated member with the results. Unless this method is followed by discussion about specific behaviors (behavior descriptions) which have caused members to rate others in certain ways, little value will accrue to individuals or the groups.

CLOSE THIS SESSION BY ADMINISTERING AND COLLECTING THE GROUP EXPECTATION SURVEY. Remind the trainees to complete their logs at the end of this session.

FRIENDLY HELPER EXERCISE*

Directions: This exercise is a means by which group members can give and receive feedback. The characteristics outlined below provide tentative guidelines for describing individual behavior as perceived by other members. This does not restrict a member's classification entirely to one category.

FRIENDLY HELPER

Characteristics:

- --expresses concern for others' feelings
- --shares own feelings of anxiety, joy, sorrow
- --compliments others for assets
- --very sympathetic toward others' difficulties
- --always pleasant
- --listens a lot

Characteristically does not:

- --express negative feelings
- --take a logical approach as well as a feeling one
- --make confrontations
- --allow for conflict to occur
- --become active in offering his way of seeing things
- --watch out for being over-protective of others

TOUGH BATTLER

Characteristics:

- --shares own feelings of humor, anger, frustration
- --dives into problems to "get to the heart of things fast"
- --action oriented rather than "a lot of talk"
- --makes clear confrontations about things that need to be dealt with

Characteristically does not:

- --express warm feelings
- --think before he acts
- --let others take leadership very often
- --take much time to listen to others
- --watch out for running roughshod over others' feelings and ideas

COOL CALCULATOR

Characteristics:

- --is concerned with identifying all parts of the problem
- --takes a "logical figure it out" approach to everything
- --never "lets feelings get in the way"
- --engages in much talk as a way to understand things
- --tends to interpret things his way

Characteristically does not:

- --become aware of the existence and influence of feelings
- --take action as well as think and talk
- --work at understanding better what others are saying
- --give others a chance to figure things out for themselves
- --watch out for over-intellectualizing everything

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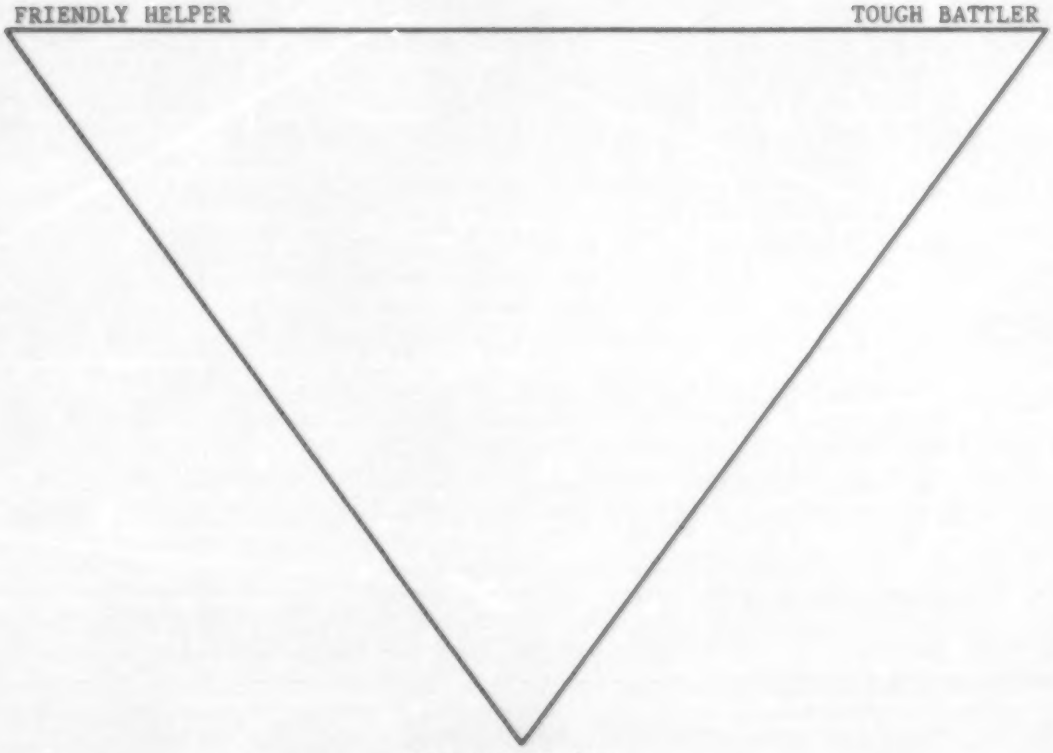
*Adapted from definitions by Richard Wallen, Summer Reading Book. National Training Laboratories, National Education Association, 1967, page 18.

Friendly Helper Exercise



GROUP EXPECTATION SURVEY

Directions: Put a number from the following Rating Scale in the space before each of the items below. Choose the one which, in your opinion, best shows your reaction to other group members at this time.

---

5 = any group member
4 = all but one or two group members
3 = a majority of the group members
2 = slightly less than half of the group members
1 = one or two group members
0 = none of this group

In your opinion, how many group members would let you know openly during a group session if:

(____) 1. He thought you had changed the subject or were being irrelevant?

(____) 2. He liked something you said or did?

(____) 3. He didn't understand something you said?

(____) 4. Something you said or did hurt his feelings?

How many group members would you let know openly during a group session if:

(____) 5. You thought he had changed the subject or was being irrelevant?

(____) 6. You liked something he said or did?

(____) 7. You didn't understand something he said?

(____) 8. Something he said or did hurt your feelings?

STEP 10

PURPOSES

To provide guidelines for the constructive use of feelings.

To illustrate how feelings influence behavior.

ACTIVITIES

Lecture: 30 minutes
THE CONSTRUCTIVE USE OF FEELINGS

Feelings are data that interpret the status of the relationship

The Constructive Use of Feelings, Trainee Content Outline, page 73

OBJECTIVES

The trainees will:

1. Recognize the difference between talking about feelings from the past and feelings about the present
2. Recognize the difference between controlling and not controlling feelings
3. Recognize the difference between talking about one's own feelings and those of others
4. Recognize guidelines for the constructive use of feelings

TRAINER'S INFORMATION

This lecture is designed to provide information on how feelings influence our relationships with others. It illustrates how they can be used noncoercively and constructively to improve these relationships.

The content is intended to be presented in lecture form to the total workshop group. The trainer can best use the content as a guide. He should adapt and vary the presentation to fit his own instructional style.

A skeletal outline of the lecture content follows on page 73. The trainer should distribute it to the trainees before beginning his presentation.

THE CONSTRUCTIVE USE OF FEELINGS

Trainee Content Outline

The greatest single source of difficulties in interpersonal relationships is dealing with one's own and others' feelings.

1. Feelings are seen as being disruptive...

2. Past feelings are easier to talk about than present feelings...

How to use feelings constructively in a relationship.

1. Accept feelings as being natural...

2. Recognize that feelings play a "fuse function..."

3. Use feelings as a source of data to diagnose what is going right or wrong...

4. Describe your own feelings in ways that lead to clarification...

5. Be alert to the other person's feelings...

THE CONSTRUCTIVE USE OF FEELINGS*

The greatest single source of difficulties in interpersonal relationships is dealing with one's own and others' feelings. What kind of evidence would validate this statement? As an experiment, observe how people talk about their feelings, not just in small groups but in their families, with strangers and others. Incidents like the following occur quite frequently. Someone starts to talk about how he feels. The other person says, "Cheer up. Don't let it get you down." "Please don't cry." Or, "It's silly to feel that way." He might say, "I don't know why I should feel this way, but...." Possibly, "Now, let's have a rational discussion and keep feelings out of it." Or, "Let's try to be objective." "Keep your feelings to yourself." Most people spend a great deal of effort trying to ignore or deny their own feelings or those of other people in one way or another. In every interaction, feelings exist and play a part, but are most frequently seen as disruptive elements. In short, the difficulty with being a person is having feelings.

Another observation to verify this attitude toward feeling is to ask the time perspective when people talk about feelings. During which time did the feelings occur? In most instances, there are relatively few discussions of "immediate" feelings in comparison with the number of discussions by people telling about feelings they had some other time. A continuum of the ease with which feelings are expressed could be set up. (See diagram on CONTINUUM OF EASE FOR EXPRESSING FEELINGS, page 76)

The easiest situation is to tell of feelings about somebody else at some time in the past. "I really told him off, and boy, was I burned up with him." This kind of remark often is heard. Somewhat more difficult is to tell of feelings about somebody right now. "I'm really burned up with him." Still more difficult is to tell an individual of feelings about him in the past. "When you told me such and such three weeks ago, it really hurt me." And most difficult is to tell someone of feelings about him right here and now. If a person looks at the way human beings talk about their feelings, he will find a higher proportion of talk in relation to somebody else at some other time than of feelings someone has about him at the present time. Since feelings are so difficult to handle and emotional self-control is desirable, it seems relevant to talk about the constructive use of feelings.

There is no such thing as controlling feelings by ignoring them. There is no such thing as controlling feelings by denying them. When one attempts to deny or ignore feelings, he relinquishes control of them; he lets his feelings control him. If he feels angry and convinces himself that he doesn't, he only has trained himself to ignore a set of feelings. The feelings still continue and will take their course to affect his behavior. The control of feelings is in their use, not

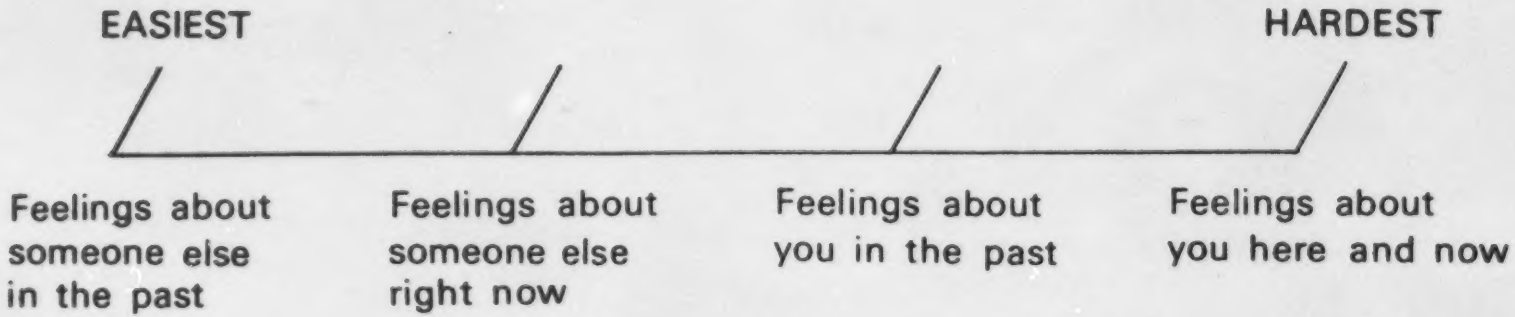
*Adapted from Lectures by John L. Wallen at the Clinical Supervision Institute, Portland State University, Portland, Oregon, 1965.

in ignoring them. Feelings are one source of data about his relation to the world. To the extent that an individual is unaware of them, he puts himself at the mercy of a process without full information about it. It would be as if to say, "Colors are so disturbing that from now on, I'm going to pay no attention to them." If a man could train himself to see only in black and white, he could say, "The problem is solved." Of course, he could get killed running through a red light. Colors provide important information about the world. Likewise, the feelings that take place privately in a person are an important source of information about the world around him. Why? What is the significance of feelings? Why do human beings have feelings if they are so disruptive and cause so much trouble? Wouldn't it be better if children could be trained not to have feelings as they grew up? To do this, however, would be to cripple them for effective social interaction. Feelings reveal what a situation means to people--whether or not they like it.

How does one use feelings constructively? First, remember that it is natural to have feelings. Accept them. Experience them. Don't feel it is necessary to justify them or prove one ought to have them. It is a simple fact that as long as an individual is a human being and to the extent that he is a human being, he will have feelings. All people have a right to all their feelings. They have a right to feel anger, or fear, to feel loneliness, joy, discouragement, elation, unhappiness, love, surprise, anticipation, disappointment, satisfaction, contentment, guilt and pride. These are the things that make people human.

Second, as the person becomes increasingly in tune with his feelings, he can recognize they fulfill a "fuse function." If he looks at the switch box in his home and finds a fuse is burned out, it will tell him there's something wrong with the circuit someplace. He will check it out to see where the overload is; he corrects the error, he replaces the fuse. In short, something is put in the circuit that will break down before any other part, a fuse. If the fuse is taken out of the circuit and it is wired together, it may end up by burning the house down. Therefore, it's important to have a fuse as part of a circuit; a part that fails first, before the situation gets too bad. Likewise, feelings play a fuse function in interpersonal relations. Feelings show what inferences should be checked out if a relationship is to be maintained and strengthened. Positive feelings are cues of safety. They show trust in the other and allow a person to feel free to be himself, to change his mind, to grow. He can say tomorrow, "I have changed my mind from yesterday, but I'm not worried about it. I don't have to protect and defend the way I felt yesterday." Negative feelings are cues that something is amiss in the relationship; something needs to be clarified or understood better.

CONTINUUM OF EASE FOR EXPRESSING FEELINGS


EASIEST
HARDEST
Feelings about someone else in the past
Feelings about someone else right now
Feelings about you in the past
Feelings about you here and now

STEP 10
76

Third, feelings are a source of data to diagnose what is going right or wrong in a relationship. Bring feelings out of the margin of attention into the focus of attention. Attention is selective; human beings tend to screen out certain things and screen in other things. This is what happens when feelings are ignored. Attention is focused on everything but feeling. Instead of focusing attention on feelings, the emphasis is placed on someone else's characteristics. An example: A man has a sprained wrist that is very painful. But if he goes to a movie and gets absorbed in it, he doesn't feel the pain any more. The pain is there, all the sensations, the physiological changes are there, but as long as he is absorbed in the movie, he is unaware of the pain. Likewise, if a principal treats a teacher unfairly, the teacher's feelings may be, "I feel inferior; I feel incompetent; I feel resentful." This is a very unpleasant state. Usually, however, one doesn't focus on these feelings. Instead, he says, "My principal is unfair; he is rude; he is insensitive." He dissuades himself of feelings, because his feelings now come out expressed as the principal's characteristics.

In reality, feelings are kept in the margin of attention by developing language habits to keep from being aware of them. However, whether feelings are in the focus or the margin of attention, they will still influence behavior. This comes back to the point that one cannot control feelings by forcing them out of the focus of attention. He can control feelings only by leaving them in the focus of attention and using them to help diagnose what's going wrong or right in a situation. As an example, one woman, determined to be a good mother, felt anger and irritation were ugly and ignoble passions. She was very surprised one day when her small daughter walked up to her and asked if she were mad. The mother said, "Why no, I'm not angry. Whatever gave you that idea?" The little girl looked up and said, "Well, you walk mad." The mother had feelings which she felt she should not have. When she forced them into the margin of attention, they came out in her walking--not in words. Even though feelings may be forced into the margin of attention, the feelings still continue to operate. They are trying to tell something about the way one relates to life around him. To ignore these feelings is to be less than a complete person.

Fourth, when appropriate, describe inner feelings in a way that leads to increased clarification of the relationship between individuals. Take the case of the wife who confronted her husband. She said, "I'd like to take a few minutes to discuss my feelings of irritation about what you're doing right now. Because if you go on doing that, I'm going to become more and more irritated. Ultimately, we'll have a real blowup and we won't know where it came from. So, I'd like to tell you about my irritation while I can still manage it. Let's find out what gives rise to this." To her, this was an act of concern. It

would have been very different if three weeks later she had said, "There you go again. That's the fiftieth time you've done such and such. And you're no good, etc., etc." Well, anyone knows what the husband's reaction would have been to that. It probably wouldn't have been a description of feeling.

When feelings get too high, it's hard to describe them. A person should make clear he is merely reporting his own feelings, not making accusations or judgments, not commanding the other individual. He should make clear his feelings reveal something to be happening that the two involved see or feel differently.

Description calls for two actions. An individual indicates, (1) HE is the one involved, and (2) the feeling is in HIM. This is done by such statements as, "I am angry," or, "I love you." It is "I" who loves "you." "I" haven't said "you" were worthy. "I" haven't said "you" are the most beautiful creature in the world. "I" say that "I" love "you." That's a very different thing. There are many more feelings than labels. There couldn't possibly be enough standard terms to report the infinite variety of feelings and mixtures of feelings that are possible. Unique, highly individualistic descriptions of feelings are created by using metaphors. "I feel like a motherless child," is more revealing than "I feel lonely." One person described his feelings in the group this way: "I feel like a pigmy in the midst of a company of giants who have all turned their backs on me." This is a much more powerful description than, "I feel rejected and inferior."

One way to describe feelings is to say, "I feel" and to give a label. A second way is to say, "I feel" and to use a metaphor. A third way is to say, "I feel" and to describe the actions this feeling might give rise to. For instance, "I feel like giving you a great big hug," or "I feel like shaking you and shaking you."

The final point in using feelings constructively is to be alert to the other person's feelings. When another person makes expressions, try to check out if the feelings behind them are being read accurately. Caution: Don't fall into the trap of going around telling everybody else they ought to describe their feelings. A woman with this viewpoint said, "I think this is great about describing feelings, but last night when I did something with the checkbook, my husband said, 'Oh, you're so stupid. Why do you have to make these silly mistakes?' And I told him, 'Look, when you express your feelings that way, that's accusing. You ought to describe your feelings, tell me how you feel about it!' He said, 'There you go again, telling me how to talk. Why do I have to talk the way you want me to?'" She fell into the trap of trying to change him. It would have been different if she had said, "You know when you call me stupid and silly like that, I feel crushed and alone. These are my feelings." But she didn't do that. Her feeling of being

crushed came out indirectly by saying, "Change the way you talk to me, Sir!" Therefore, the danger is in thinking the idea is great for the other fellow. The end result, however, is that it becomes merely one more attempt to coerce another individual to be the kind of person one would like to have around him. When the other person uses an expression, accept this. Then, try to rephrase it to check understanding. A person can say, "Well, when you said I was unfair about such and such, that indicated to me that you were pretty angry with me. Is that what you were feeling?" "You darn well bet I was angry with you." Now, he's describing feelings!

If the relationship with another person is a main concern, whether a supervisee, a student, another member of the group or a family member, that concern should come out by being able to share feelings in a direct, noncoercive way.

STEP 11

PURPOSES

To provide opportunity for continued interaction and skill practice.

To provide the opportunity for trainees to receive feedback on communication skills.

ACTIVITIES

Practicum: 3 hours

Continued interaction with focus on the communication skills and constructive use of feelings.

Provide composite totals for Summary of Group Expectation Survey, page 81

Administer Communication Ratings (OPTIONAL), pages 82-83

OBJECTIVES

The trainees will:

1. Examine their ability to skillfully communicate ideas and feelings
2. Compare their own perception of how well they communicate ideas and feelings with the perceptions of others
3. Recognize that members of a group usually see themselves as being more open than they perceive others to be
4. Recognize that people tend to give feedback more openly about ideas than feelings
5. Demonstrate some skill in constructively using feelings

TRAINER'S INFORMATION

It is suggested the trainer introduce this session by saying, "Here is a composite summary of Group Expectation Survey. The information is for the group to use in ways that will help you progress toward the objectives."

The usual results of the Group Expectation Survey reveal the individual members of a group generally see themselves as being more open than they perceive others to be. This can be determined by comparing the items under Estimate with the Actual ratings. The survey also indicates the members tend to give feedback more openly about ideas than feelings. This result is determined by a comparison of Items 4 and 8 with all the other ratings.

If the Communication Ratings exercise is used during this practicum, the trainer should allow at least 90 minutes for completion and discussion of results. It is possible, however, the trainees will not want to discuss the results until later (if at all) which would reduce considerably both the time needed for administration and the value of the exercise. If the group decides not to share the information, the trainer may want to intervene by asking, "What is it that prevents this group from sharing the information?"

SUMMARY OF GROUP EXPECTATION SURVEY

Using the rating scale for the Group Expectation Survey, record a mark (x) for each trainee's response to the question.

(Estimate) HOW MANY WOULD TELL ME OPENLY IF...	Rating Scale	(Actual) HOW MANY WOULD I TELL OPENLY IF...
1. I changed the subject	-5- -4- -3- -2- -1- -0-	5. He changed the subject
2. He liked what I said or did	-5- -4- -3- -2- -1- -0-	6. I liked what he said or did
3. He didn't understand me	-5- -4- -3- -2- -1- -0-	7. I didn't understand him
4. I hurt his feelings	-5- -4- -3- -2- -1- -0-	8. He hurt my feelings

COMMUNICATION RATINGS

Directions: On the back of this sheet, rate each member, including yourself, on all four questions. Rate all members on one question before going on to the next.

To make your ratings: Read the two descriptions, A and B, for each question. Rate a member A if he is more like A than B; rate him B if he is more like B than A.

1. HOW CLEARLY DOES HE COMMUNICATE IDEAS, INFORMATION AND SUGGESTIONS?

   A. He is easy to understand, gets to the point, and is neither too detailed nor too general.

   B. He is hard to understand. Perhaps he speaks in generalities, rambles, assumes too much or gives too many confusing details.

2. HOW CLEARLY DOES HE COMMUNICATE HIS FEELINGS?

   A. He is easy to understand. The way he acts and looks agrees with what he says he feels. He seems to know what he is feeling and be able to describe it.

   B. It's hard to know what he really feels. Perhaps he does not say how he feels or the way he acts and looks contradicts what he says he feels.

3. HOW MUCH DOES HE TRY TO UNDERSTAND THE IDEAS, INFORMATION AND SUGGESTIONS OF OTHERS?

   A. He really tries to discover what others mean and how they see a situation, whether he agrees with them or not.

   B. He makes little effort to understand what others mean. He doesn't check how well he understands what another has said. Perhaps he is indifferent to the ideas of others or he assumes that he understands.

4. HOW MUCH DOES HE TRY TO UNDERSTAND WHAT OTHERS FEEL?

   A. It's easy to discuss your feelings with him because he really tries to understand. He does not jump to conclusions about what you feel but checks his understanding with you.

   B. It's hard to talk about your feelings with him. He seems to lose interest or get uncomfortable when others discuss feelings.

Communication Ratings

Group_____ Session_____

Directions: List the names of all members, including yourself, in a standard order. Rate everyone on one question before going on to the next. Rate a member A if he is more like A than B; rate him B is he is more like B than A.

Group Members	Question 1	Question 2	Question 3	Question 4
1.				
2.				
3.				
4.				
5.				
6.				
7.				
8.				
9.				
10.				
11.				
12.				

After completing the ratings, discuss and decide if and how you are going to share this information.

STEP 12

PURPOSES

To provide additional information for improving skills in communication.

To provide information on the components of a "trust relationship."

To acquaint trainees with some other implications and effects of "praise."

ACTIVITIES

Lecture: 30 minutes
THE INTERPERSONAL EFFECT
OF RESPONSES

The relationship between freeing-binding responses and trust

The Interpersonal Effect of Various Responses, page 93

Interpersonal Effect of Various Responses Self-Correcting Exercise, pages 94-95

About Praise, pages 96-98

OBJECTIVES

The trainees will:

1. Distinguish between responses which produce a freeing effect and those which produce a binding effect
2. Identify the components for establishing a trusting relationship
3. Recognize that meeting conflict as a challenge requires risk taking which can lead to increased trust
4. Recognize the effects of praise in a relationship

TRAINER'S INFORMATION

This lecture is designed to provide information on how various kinds of responses can produce binding or freeing effects, depending upon the degree of trust in the relationship. It also deals with the factors involved in establishing a trust relationship, and possible undesirable effects of using praise.

The content is intended to be presented in lecture form to the total workshop group. Each trainer can best use the content as a guide. He should adapt and vary the presentation to fit his own instructional style.

At the close of the presentation, distribute the Interpersonal Effect of Various Responses Self-Correcting Exercise for the trainees to complete. As the trainees are working on this exercise, distribute the handout, About Praise. The trainees are expected to read this material on their own time.

THE INTERPERSONAL EFFECT OF RESPONSES*

This paper concerns the various ways of responding to one another, and the effect of these responses on an interpersonal relationship. In other words, "How can I respond to another person and help him feel more equal to me, more autonomous and independent; help him feel less under my control?" Maybe it could be illustrated this way. Suppose someone has just gone to his principal about a student teacher. "Somehow, I just can't bring myself to tell Joe how bad his work is. He's such a nice guy but I can't let this go on much longer. It's playing havoc with the children." The principal replies, "Put your sentiment aside, you've got to get action to protect those kids." This response limits any freedom to explore the situation. This is a binding response. Or, the principal says, "Well, I know you're a very good supervising teacher; you'll be able to get it across to Joe. You can be firm." He's leveling an expectation in this regard and thus a binding response. But suppose the principal had said, "Well, I guess you feel pretty torn by this, pulled two ways." This would be a freeing response which allows the supervising teacher to express either side. The principal might say, "What are the various alternatives open to you?" This is a freeing response that says, "Let's look at this, there are no limits on it." Suppose the principal says, "Is there anything you would like to do that would be helpful?" Again, a freeing response, it indicates a resource, not passing judgment, not binding to any set of expectations. Or the principal says, "You're too wishy-washy, you're going to have to get some backbone." This is a binding response because it does not allow any exploration of the alternatives in the situation. Instead, the teacher is forced to act. Or the principal may say, "Well, it's your fault for letting it go so long. You wouldn't be in this spot if you'd told him when you first noticed." This indicates a binding response. The principal may say, "You want to take care of the children's needs, but you don't want to hurt Joe. Is that it?" That's a paraphrase, a freeing response which recognizes both sides of the feeling expressed. It does not pass judgment.

In order to make this distinction more clear between freeing and binding responses, recall the continuum of ease with which people talk about feelings from The Constructive Use of Feelings. Feelings about someone else, someplace in the past, are relatively easy to talk about. Feelings about each other here and now, however, are more difficult to talk about. There can also be a continuum of ways to respond to individuals which ranges from responses producing a freeing effect to those that produce a binding effect. (See diagram on CONTINUUM OF RESPONSES, page 87)

*Adapted from Lectures by John L. Wallen at the Clinical Supervision Institute, Portland State University, Portland, Oregon, 1965.

The Interpersonal Effect of Responses

In other words, there are certain ways to respond which will result in a growth-producing relationship. These ways free the other individual to grow by making him feel that he can change or not as he pleases. DISTRIBUTE HANDOUT on The Interpersonal Effect of Various Responses.

On the handout, first take a look at responses which produce freeing effects. One of the most freeing responses is active, attentive listening. This means one must be responsive in some way to the other individual. Not just to sit in silence, but to use facial expressions, eye contact, words such as, "I see, yes, uh huh," and to give undivided attention to the person who is talking.

Another type of freeing response is paraphrasing. This is a form of attentive listening, to see if the message received is the message the other person is sending.

A third kind of freeing response is a perception check. A perception check is really a form of paraphrase, but it is a paraphrase of feeling. Feelings are not usually expressed directly, and are very often expressed nonverbally. A person needs to check them to find out what the other person may be feeling.

A fourth kind of freeing response is seeking information to help understand the other person. This means asking questions which are relevant to what the other person is saying.

A fifth way is offering information relevant to the other's concerns; reporting factual observations. For example, if someone has information about the standard of living in Oakland, and a friend is moving there who wants to know this information--it should be offered. But one must avoid making value judgments about the information. The other person can make those for himself.

Another way of freeing the other individual is to share information that has influenced inner feelings and viewpoints in similar situations. But avoid applying it to his situation; let him make the application.

Directly reporting inner feelings is also a freeing response. For example, one might say, "I feel helpless to offer information, or to provide alternative solutions for this problem."

A final way of freeing the other person is by offering new alternatives. For example, an individual might say, "I wonder, have you thought about doing this?" Or, "Let's explore this situation further by looking at some other possibilities."

CONTINUUM OF RESPONSES

In summary, then, these freeing responses may be familiar. In essence they represent the effective use of communication skills. In order to free the other person, one must have an increased understanding of him and convey this in some way. A person needs to know how to listen, paraphrase and check perceptions. He also has to be able to help the other person understand him, which means he can describe behavior and events objectively; and to report his feelings openly and directly.

Other responses have a binding or cueing effect on an individual. These kinds of responses diminish the other person's autonomy by making him feel controlled or the object of someone else's impulses. One kind of binding response is changing the subject without explanation. A wife may say to a husband who has just arrived home from work, "Oh, I'm so unhappy about what happened today. I felt so inadequate when the kids were unruly. I was just in tears." And the husband replies, "Did the milkman leave the milk bill?" He is changing the subject and avoiding his wife's feelings in this situation.

Another kind of binding response is explaining or interpreting the other's behavior in some way. In other words, telling him why is is the way he is. Giving advice and persuasion is also binding. Telling another person what he should do, does not allow him the freedom to explore a situation. Nor does providing vigorous agreement permit freedom of action. Statements such as, "I couldn't agree with you more!" "You are absolutely right!" "There could not be another way to do this!" produce binding effects on the other person.

A fifth kind of binding response is leveling an expectation. Statements such as, "I know that you won't let us down." "I know you can do it." bind a person to a prescribed level of performance. A sixth way is to deny the other person's feelings. A statement like, "How can you get upset over a little thing like that?" is denying the use of feelings as important data in a situation. A seventh kind of binding response is to give approval on personal grounds, to praise the other person for feeling or behaving in the ways desired for him to behave. Praise in the binding sense means saying such things as, "good job" or "terrific lesson," without identifying the specific behavior being rewarded. A handout will be distributed at the close of this session which will enlarge upon the possible binding effects of praise.

Another kind of binding response is disapproving of the other person on personal grounds. This involves censoring him for behaving in ways thought undesirable for him by making accusations or imputing unworthy motives. "You're a louse for doing that." Or another way is by giving commands or orders. "Do what I say and don't look for alternatives." A final way of binding the other person to a position is to place some emotional obligation on him. For example, "I've worked so hard to put you through college, and now you're going to quit at the end of your

sophomore year. How can you do this to me when I have done so much for you?" This is probably one of the most binding responses because it creates guilt feelings in the other and is a very difficult kind of response to cope with.

This information is one way to look at the interpersonal effect of various responses. There may be disagreement with some responses and their effect. The important thing to remember, however, is that the effect any response has depends largely upon the degree of trust in the relationship. The higher the level of trust, the greater the variety of responses which can be used without producing a binding effect.

Because trust is so important in a relationship, the focus now turns to factors that help determine whether to trust the other person. Trust is made up of two components. How "I" perceive the other person's intentions towards me is one component. I must believe he really wants to help me, that he has my best interest at heart. This will predispose me to trust him, but is not enough. If I am climbing down a rock face, and I need a rope to support me, I won't trust my most vicious enemy to hold the rope. Why? Because I don't trust his intentions. But it may also be true that I won't let my friend, whose intentions I don't doubt, hold the rope for me. Why? Because he is too weak. That is, I don't trust his competence. The questions asked to determine whether to trust someone are: (1) "Can he help me?" (2) "Does he wish to help me?" A trusting relationship develops if both competence and intentions are operant.

The next question becomes, how does one create a trusting relationship? Are there certain ways in which to behave that enable the other person to trust? One might ask, "Which people in the group do I trust most?" "How did this happen?" Some of the following principles apply in a trust relationship. The first principle in establishing a trust relationship is predictability. A person must act in such a fashion that the other knows he is not a whimsical, capricious person. In short, the other can predict his behavior. This is particularly true in dealing with someone with whom there is a power or status difference. It is much more difficult to establish a trust relationship with a subordinate when in a power position than it is to establish a relationship with an equal. This is due to the power to reward or punish the subordinate. He needs to know with high predictability, how this power will be used. Professional negotiation in the public schools is partially an effort to limit the power of administrators and school board members; to make the situation more predictable. Then, faculties could be more certain about the competence and intentions of the administration and school board.

The Interpersonal Effect of Responses

A second principle in establishing a trust relationship is risk taking. If a risk is not taken, if a person is not willing to take a risk, he cannot establish a trusting relationship. If he wants someone else to trust him, he cannot act in a way which indicates he requires a 100 percent guarantee of success before he engages in further actions. An individual must risk something, must put something on the line. The first kind of risk that is important in a relationship is making an effort to understand the other person. This means knowing how to listen, how to check perceptions of his feelings, how to paraphrase what he is feeling, how to ask open questions and how to feed back what is being received from him. That is pretty obvious, but how is it taking a risk? If one is genuinely listening, a person exposes himself to the possibility of change. When he indicates a willingness to change, he is taking a risk which may generate a genuine relationship. But, when he indicates his mind is made up, with no possibility of change, and that he knows all the facts, no risk is involved. Attempting to understand the other person is to risk a change of mind, of opinion or a change in himself. Another form of risk taking is delegation. For instance, if an administrator delegates only the unimportant problems for decision making to the faculty, or only those decisions at which they cannot fail, distrust will be manifested. It is going to be difficult to establish a trust relationship. The faculty needs to have the opportunity to make decisions and to live by those decisions without the threat of failure. Or as a second example, if the trainer in these groups allows members to make only the safe kinds of decisions, he's creating certain suspicion and distrust. A third form of risk taking is openness in reporting inner feelings; openness in letting the other person know who you are. If a person lets someone know him, he is making himself vulnerable. By making himself vulnerable, he indicates his willingness to take a risk, which means he trusts the other person. For example,

> My name may be Englebert. But I don't want to be called Englebert, and I tell you this. If you continue to call me Englebert because you know I don't like it, you are manifesting distrust. I find I cannot trust you with certain kinds of information about myself. If I tell you the things which make me feel angry, discouraged, depressed or unhappy; if I tell you my weaknesses, I am giving you weapons to use against me if you wish. You now know how to make me angry, depressed or unhappy, and how to avoid making me happy.

To the extent that a person opens himself to another as a person, he risks becoming vulnerable. In doing so, however, he is attempting to indicate his trust.

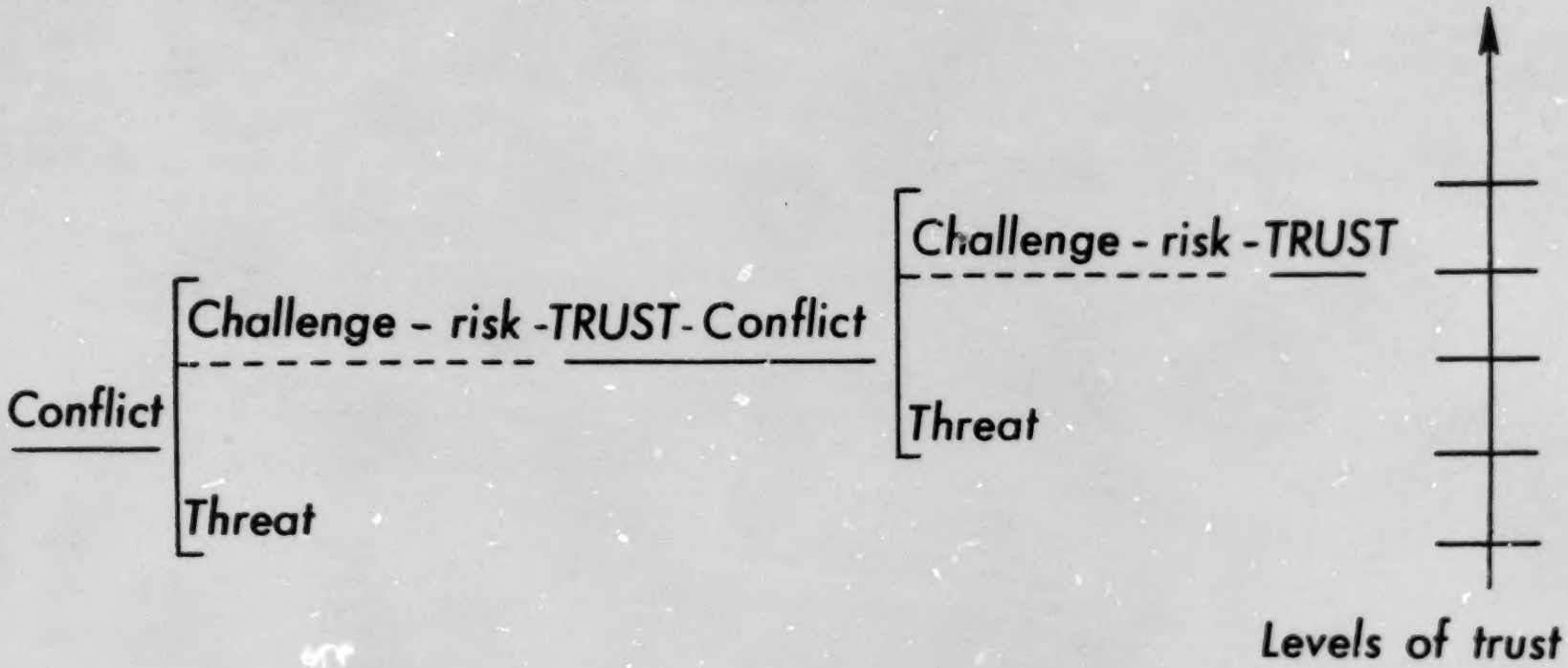
One way to illustrate how the principle of risk taking can lead to higher levels of trust in a relationship is shown in the following diagram on TRUST DEVELOPMENT, page 92.

The Interpersonal Effect of Responses

Whenever conflict occurs in a relationship, it can be confronted as a threat or challenge. If it is met as a threat, it remains a threat, because the people involved usually work around it. They avoid mentioning it, because it may damage the relationship. On the other hand, if the conflict is met as a challenge, it usually requires some sort of risk be taken. That is, the problem which is causing the conflict is brought into the open and discussed to resolve the difficulty. Resolution of the problem can result only by making it known and dealing with it. This process leads to trust in the relationship. Since conflict is inevitable, it continually must be met as a challenge which involves risk taking, but also results in higher and higher levels of trust.

In summary, the more an individual behaves in a predictable fashion and is willing to take risks, the better the chances are of establishing a trust relationship with the other person. The greater the degree of trust established, the more binding responses can be used without producing binding effects. If the relationship is not trusting, a person should stay rather closely to the freeing end of the continuum of responses to be helpful to another.

TRUST DEVELOPMENT



STEP 12
92

THE INTERPERSONAL EFFECT OF VARIOUS RESPONSES*

FREEING EFFECTS: Increases other's autonomy as a person; increases sense of equality

Active, attentive listening: Responsive listening, not just silence

Paraphrasing: Testing to insure the message you received was the one he sent

Perception check: Showing your desire to relate to and understand him as a person by checking your perception of his inner state; showing acceptance of feelings

Seeking information to help you understand him: Questions directly relevant to what he has said, not ones that introduce new topics

Offering information relevant to the other's concerns: He may or may not use it

Sharing information that has influenced your feelings and viewpoints

Directly reporting your own feelings

Offering new alternatives: Action proposals offered as hypotheses to be tested

BINDING-CUEING EFFECTS: Diminishes other's autonomy by increasing sense of subordination

Changing the subject without explanation: For example, to avoid the other's feelings

Explaining the other, interpreting his behavior: "You do that because your mother always...." Binds him to past behavior or may be seen as an effort to get him to change

Advice and persuasion: "What you should do is...."

Vigorous agreement: Binds him to present position--limits his changing his mind

Expectations: Binds to past, "You never did this before. What's wrong?" Cues him to future action, "I'm sure you will...." "I know you can do it."

Denying his feelings: "You don't really mean that!" "You have no reason to feel that way" Generalizations, "Everybody has problems like that."

Approval on personal grounds: Praising the other for thinking, feeling or acting in ways that you want him to, that is, for conforming to your standards

Disapproval on personal grounds: Blaming or censuring the other for thinking, acting, and feeling in ways you do not want him to; imputing unworthy motives to him

Commands, orders: Telling the other what to do. Includes, "Tell me what to do!"

Emotional obligations: Control through arousing feelings of shame and inferiority. "How can you do this to me when I have done so much for you?"

THE EFFECT OF ANY RESPONSE DEPENDS UPON THE DEGREE OF TRUST IN THE RELATIONSHIP

The less trust, the less freeing effect from any response. The more trust, the less binding effect from any response.

---

*John L. Wallen, Portland, Oregon, 1965. (mimeo)

INTERPERSONAL EFFECT OF VARIOUS RESPONSES

Self-Correcting Exercise

Identify the following responses to the given problem as to their freeing or binding effect. Circle F for freeing or B for binding to indicate your choice. Appropriate responses are listed on the back of this page.

PROBLEM: Miss Smith has just held a telephone discussion with a mother in regard to her son's ill-mannered behavior in the lunch room. The parent stated this didn't sound like her son at all and she felt the teacher had it "in" for the boy. She requested the teacher arrange a conference for her with both the teacher and the principal present to discuss the matter further.

RESPONSES:

F B 1. "Do you mean the parent said the boy never had any problem like this before?"

F B 2. "You might discuss this further with the student before talking with the parent again."

F B 3. "If I'd been you, I would have gone to the principal first before calling the parent."

F B 4. "I imagine you felt rather taken back when the parent said it didn't sound like her son, and that you had it 'in' for the boy."

F B 5. "Why did you call the parent first? You usually talk things like this over with the principal before calling the parent."

F B 6. "All parents say that about their children when they have problems. You shouldn't feel upset about this one."

****

Circle F for false or T for true in answering each of the following:

T F 7. A trust relationship requires only that a person is willing to give help.

T F 8. Unqualified praise has a freeing effect upon the person receiving it.

T F 9. The greater the level of trust, the more binding responses can be used without causing binding effects.

T F 10. Predictability and risk taking are two principles of establishing trust.

Appropriate Responses

1. Freeing-paraphrasing
2. Freeing-alternatives
3. Binding-giving advice
4. Freeing-perception check
5. Binding-expectations
6. Binding-denying feelings
7. False (Trust also involves competence)
8. False (See page 93)
9. True (See page 93)
10. True (The more an individual behaves in a predictable fashion and is willing to take risks, the better the chances are of establishing a trusting relationship. Three common forms of risk taking are (a) exposing oneself to the possibility of change, (b) delegating responsibility and (c) openness in reporting inner feelings.)

ABOUT PRAISE*

The use of praise often produces a binding rather than a freeing effect. This may seem somewhat surprising. Typically, praise has been thought of as an effective human relations tool. There is increasing evidence, however, that the use of praise can produce unintended side effects which are not desired.

The term "praise" as used here means expressing approval of the other person or of his behavior without letting him know the basis for this approval. In short, praise does not give information that will enable the other to judge for himself when he has done a good job. The following examples should clarify this distinction.

If someone tells a speaker that he is a fine lecturer, and he understands the expression of approval but doesn't know the basis for it, that's praise. If, on the other hand, the person had said, "I liked your lecture because you used so many examples to make the abstract points clear," he would have given information the speaker could use. If a teacher tells a pupil, "You did a nice job on this bookshelf," the student does not know the basis for the praise. If the teacher had said, "You made no hammer marks where you drove the nails, the ends are sanded velvety soft and the varnish is smooth and even without any running. The bookshelf is constructed well," the student then knows the basis for the instructor's evaluation. The instructor, that is, would have been giving the student helpful information and not just praise.

Often, when someone is praised, he replies, "Well, I've just been lucky," or "Well, I really can't take credit for it," or maybe "Oh, you're just saying that." Perhaps he even points out the defects in it when others praise something he has done. What's the meaning of these kinds of expressions? If praise is as welcomed as most believe, then why do people often become defensive when praised? This defensiveness is evidence of the fact that praise often has a binding effect.

After a person has been praised he feels less free to be himself than he did before. This comes from a more general principle: Anytime a person evaluates or passes judgment on another, he is trying to motivate him in some way, to move him in a certain direction, to change him or take some control over his life.

The second effect of praise is its creation of differences in status. A person who wants to increase his own status sits in judgment on other people. If he is superior, it is to praise others who are congruent with his own status. For example, if Picasso should say to a painter, "You are a wonderful artist," we see his praise as enhancing that painter

*Adapted from Farson, Richard E. "Praise Reappraised." Harvard Business Review. 41, No. 3: 61-66; 1963.

because Picasso himself is recognized as a fine artist. But, if someone who has no pretensions to art, and has never painted in his life, says to Picasso, "You're a real fine artist," this is seen almost an insult. He has no right to pass judgment on Picasso. It would be acceptable if he were to say, "I like the painting," but not "You're a fine artist." When someone says, "You do very well," he is implying that he is superior to you, and thus is qualified to pass judgment on you. This is a second reason that praise makes people uneasy.

Third, when people are praised they often feel that a change which another person wants made is not one they want to make for themselves. As an example, when Tommy is praised for making it to the bathroom on time, his mother probably is not so much delighted on Tommy's behalf as on her own.

The fourth problem with praise is that it puts people under the obligation to remain praiseworthy. If the principal says, "You did a beautiful job on that lesson," the teacher feels, "Oh, golly, now he's going to expect me to do it every time." So she says, "Well, that was just luck, it may not be so good the next time." Praise raises feelings of inadequacy because of the expectation to be praiseworthy every time.

A fifth thing that praise does is to increase the emotional distance between people. It increases this distance because when one person has the right to evaluate another, the two are no longer equal. Superiors evaluate inferiors. It is quite obvious when someone shows disapproval. The resulting feeling is that he is putting himself higher, and thus increasing the emotional distance. Praising a person continuously is not conducive to closeness in the relationship.

To summarize, if the development of initiative in students or of judgment and problem solving ability in other people is desired, praise will usually fail. To liberate these qualities in people it is necessary to rely on internal motivation. A person needs to help others become free of his control. A more equalitarian atmosphere needs to be established. Often, more closeness and intimacy needs to be created; the frequent use of praise avoids this.

There are several experiments that can be tried as an investigation into the nature of praise. The next time you praise someone by just stating approval with no accompanying information, note whether he opens up and talks more about the topic or whether he becomes defensive, diffident and uncomfortable. As a second part of this experiment, check your own reaction when people praise you. What do you do and say? How do you feel inside? As a last experiment, although this is possibly a dangerous one, try responding to praise by saying something like,

About Praise

"I guess you think I'm very competent," or "I guess you think I'm a pretty good teacher." The reaction to this remark may indicate that this praise was intended to do something other than what was expected.

To the extent that the other person accepts and welcomes praise of his behavior, he has become less free to be himself and more dependent upon the evaluator. He has begun to rely upon someone to judge him rather than developing his own ability to judge for himself.

STEP 13

PURPOSES

To provide opportunity for continued interaction and skill practice.

To practice skill of "freeing" a discussion in which feelings are involved.

ACTIVITIES

Practicum: 2 hours

Continued interaction toward the objectives

Administer Exercise in Freeing and Binding Responses (OPTIONAL), page 100

OBJECTIVES

The trainees will:

1. Examine their own interaction for freeing and binding responses and effects

2. Demonstrate some skill in freeing a discussion in which feelings are involved

TRAINER'S INFORMATION

The trainer may not want to use the optional exercise unless the group is bogged down and unable to interact and generate data. They also may be hung up on the effects of freeing and binding responses and could get such information by participating in the exercise.

Remind trainees to complete their logs following this session.

EXERCISE IN FREEING AND BINDING RESPONSES

The trainer divides the small group into trios. Each member of the trio selects a role to play--observer, listener or story teller.

The story teller reconstructs a story which has aroused strong personal feelings of anger, happiness, etc. He then tells his story to the listener who is instructed (unknown to the story teller) to respond with binding statements. The observer is instructed to watch the process and the reactions of the story teller and to gather data as the two interact. After about five minutes the observer provides feedback. The trio then discusses the effects of various binding responses.

The members of the trio change roles and repeat the process except that the listener is instructed to respond with freeing statements. After approximately five minutes of interaction the observer provides feedback so the trio can discuss the effects of various responses.

NOTE

For the exercise to be effective, the story teller needs to be given sufficient time to reconstruct his story and become emotionally involved. Therefore, the listener, when giving binding responses, should avoid intervening too quickly.

STEP 14

PURPOSES

To provide information concerning processes of behavior change.

To provide information to assist in dealing with interpersonal relationships.

ACTIVITIES

Lecture: 30 minutes
PROCESSES OF INTERPERSONAL INFLUENCE

The processes of behavior change as related to interpersonal relationships.

Processes of Interpersonal Influence Self-Correcting Exercise, pages 108-109

OBJECTIVES

The trainees will:

1. Identify the processes of behavioral change
2. Recognize dependent, counterdependent and "provisional try" behavior
3. Distinguish between realistic and unrealistic dependency
4. Recognize that the processes of behavior change are related to the behavior roles of dependency, counterdependency and provisional try

TRAINER'S INFORMATION

The information presented here on processes of behavior is especially relevant to establishing an effective supervisor-teacher relationship. However, it is equally appropriate as a model or rationale for the trainee to use in analyzing his own mode of learning and behavior change.

The content is intended to be presented in lecture form to the total workshop group. Each trainer can best use the content as a guide. He should adapt and vary the presentation to fit his own instructional style.

After the presentation, distribute the Processes of Interpersonal Influence Self-Correcting Exercise for the trainees to complete before dismissal.

PROCESSES OF INTERPERSONAL INFLUENCE*

When change looms, the question almost inevitably raised is, "Who's in control of this change? Am I in control of this? Am I changing myself? Or does somebody else have a very clever scheme by which I'm going to be changed in ways he wants me to be changed?" These are the nuclear questions of all problems of social influence. What part does the student or learner play in the change?

Following are descriptions of three processes of behavior change. People who have studied change in attitudes and opinions have adopted different schemes for looking at why people change their attitudes. Kelman's scheme from "Processes of Opinion Change," is one set of categories helpful in looking at human behavior.[1] There are also many other ways of describing why people change.

One of the processes by which people change is by compliance. Compliance means the individual changes his behavior to receive a reward from the other or to avoid punishment. An example of this would be a person who expresses only "correct" opinions in order to be accepted in a given group, or to avoid difficulty with his supervisor or principal. In other words, "I will behave in the way that will lead me to avoid punishment or gain reward. It doesn't mean that I think the behavior is intrinsically meaningful to me." It means that public behavior is different, but private attitudes have not changed. "I believe the same as I did before, but I will go along with what the group is saying, simply because I don't want to be punished. I do want to be rewarded." This is what is meant by compliance. A good example of this is the child who is quiet when the teacher is present but noisy when she is gone. What does this mean? The behavior is such that it gets rewards or it avoids punishment. When the rewarder or punisher is not there, the behavior is not genuinely changed. (The term "change agent" will be used because it's a general term. It could be a supervisor, a teacher or a principal, but it's one person who is attempting to change another person's behavior.) In compliance, the change agent attempts to influence by control over rewards and punishment.

A second form of change is identification. Identification brings not only a public change but also a private change. That is, the individual changes his behavior and what he says, but he also changes what he believes and what he values. It is like compliant behavior in that the individual has not changed because the behavior is intrinsically satisfying. It's different from compliance, in that the individual actually believes in what he is doing and can support it with his own values. Identification

*Adapted from lectures by John L. Wallen at the Clinical Supervision Institute, Portland State University, Portland, Oregon, 1965.

[1]Kelman, Herbert C. "Processes of Opinion Change." Public Opinion Quarterly. 25: 57-78; Spring 1961.

occurs when there is a relationship to another person such as, "I'm attracted to the role he fills." The motivation is not just reward or punishment, but the satisfaction derived from the definition of the self in relation to the other person.

For example, some students may imitate the teacher; identification takes place. If the teacher talks in a certain way, they will talk in this way. If she uses certain words, they will pick up these words. They are "in" words. They are good words. Other students like the role the teacher plays as a strong authority. They are willing to play the counter role of dependency. In other words, their behavior has changed, not because the behavior is intrinsically satisfying but because it enables them to define who they are in relation to the other person.

Although identification leads to change in the private attitude as well as the public behavior, it leaves the person in a position of conflict if he changes his attitude toward the change agent. For example, an individual goes to a psychotherapist because of some intense personal problems. He feels he has received a great deal of benefit. Certain marital difficulties have been resolved. He feels better adjusted, more free and more productive. All this has taken place. There's been private change and public change. Then someone says, "Do you know that guy's a phoney?" The psychotherapist is brought up before a committee of his professional association and disbarred or cast out as a therapist practicing "quack" techniques. The important question at this point is: What happens to the client? If he maintains the change and continues to be effective and productive, the change did not occur because of identification. On the other hand, if he goes to pieces, it indicates the change was only a matter of identification; it was not his own behavior. Therefore, the problem with identification is that the change depends upon the continued relation to the change agent.

A third process of change has been called <u>internalization</u>. This differs from compliance and identification in that the content of the behavior itself is seen as intrinsically rewarding to the individual, no matter where he got it. A student may say, "I learned more from Professor so-and-so than any other teacher, yet I couldn't stand the guy. I had no respect for his personal manners. I had no respect for his style of teaching, but, man, I really learned something that stuck with me." He is saying the learning was independent of the change agent. The behavior has become the learner's own behavior. He is now capable of spontaneity and genuineness. He is now capable of transferring this behavior to a wide variety of situations. Why should a person adopt behavior for reasons other than identification or compliance? An individual adopts the changed behavior because it helps him solve a problem, it is congenial to his orientational style, or it helps him to fulfill certain values of his own. For example, making a transcript of

a teaching act and analyzing the transcript, is an effort to help the teacher solve certain instructional problems he may have. It helps to achieve certain values that he has as a teacher, and to make him more effective. The end result is that the behavior becomes his own. He doesn't adopt it through fear or through a desire for reward. He doesn't adopt it because the change agent is a very attractive, powerful or status-laden person, and he wants to identify with him. He adopts it because it solves problems that he has become aware of and wants to solve.

All relations between people range from those in which a person's behavior is seen as his own, to those in which his behavior is seen as coerced. A person is a creature or a creator. Any set of words can be used. All it means is that there is a continuum of ways to produce change. In some methods the change makes an individual into an object, makes him see his behavior as controlled, to feel manipulated or a creature of someone else's impulses. Other methods enable him to see himself as a freely determining, self-governing individual, as a creator of change.

With these three processes of behavior change in mind, some of the roles the learner may play and how these roles affect interpersonal relationships can be explained in more detail. Namely, these are dependency (both realistic and unrealistic), counterdependency and the role of independence.

If a person temporarily needs special skills and is not likely to need them very often, the best thing to do is to depend on someone else. This is realistic dependency; it increases personal autonomy. For example, a teacher needs to rely occasionally on expert resource people to augment classroom activities. He probably doesn't say, "I'll become an expert in all fields so I can be an independent teacher." Instead, he depends on these resource people. It saves time. He doesn't expect to depend on them many times in the future. That's being realistic.

On the other hand, when a person needs skills that he will continue to use and which he can provide for himself without undue cost, the dependency is unrealistic. For example, it is unrealistic dependency if a pupil wishes to know the meaning of a word and the teacher always gives him the answer. It is far better that he learn to use the dictionary. Or, consider the teacher who relies only upon the principal to evaluate the success of her lessons. It's unrealistic; she needs to learn the qualities of a successful lesson, analyze her own teaching and make changes appropriate to improved performances. Dependency, when it is unrealistic, leads to loss of self-respect and to lack of autonomy and freedom.

How then does a person tell when an individual is being dependent, independent or counterdependent? For example, if some kind of help is offered and the learner accepts it without testing to make sure he understands, without expressing his feelings in any way or without changing the suggestion to suit his personal style, this is dependency. It may be realistic or unrealistic, but it is dependency.

It is counterdependency if, in the same situation, something is offered and a learner rejects it without testing, without expressing his opinions or feelings or without considering changes or modifications of it. This would be anticompliance. Notice, it doesn't shift him over to the situation where the behavior has become his own. His behavior is still controlled because he must do the opposite of the suggestion by the change agent.

The rebellious teenager, for example, is not free and autonomous. He has to do the opposite of what his parents want. That is the reason his actions aren't independent, instead, they are called counterdependent. This means the person is bending over backwards to demonstrate he is not dependent, or because he feels the suggestion threatens him. His rejections avoid the appearance of dependency, and any implication that he needs help, is in trouble, or needs to change.

In a third situation, something is offered to the learner which he accepts or rejects only after testing it. He wants to make sure he understands it (as by paraphrasing), has questioned and expressed his opinions or feelings about it, has changed, amplified or added to it in some way. He accepts or rejects it only after trial, evaluation, redesign, retrial and reevaluation. In that kind of situation, it is his own behavior. He has internalized the behavior. This attitude is called "the provisional try." The person willing to make the provisional try is the person who will internalize the resulting behavior. By testing the behavior against his own experience and values, then modifying it, he insures his changed behavior will be congruent with his values. In this sense, he is exhibiting independent behavior. The task of the change agent is to create a situation in which the learner is encouraged to make provisional trials... to experiment with new ways of solving problems...to become a free, autonomous and self-regulating individual.

There are a variety of responses that reveal dependency, counterdependency and openness to change. In the following situations, the learner responds to a suggestion or information presented by a person who is trying to help.

1. The learner seems to look for reasons the suggestion won't work or to find tiny flaws with it. This suggests counterdependency.

2. The learner quickly points out the suggestion doesn't solve all the problems or isn't always applicable. He assumes the suggestion should be followed in all situations, with all sorts of people. But that is his assumption. To say, "This doesn't solve all the problems," seems to mean, "It doesn't solve any of the problems. Therefore I don't need to examine its merits and drawbacks." This response indicates counterdependency. The learner is bending over backwards to avoid the appearance of weakness or is feeling threatened by the helper's approach.

3. The learner responds, "Great! Wonderful!" but asks no questions. Does he really understand or is he glad to be dependent?

4. The learner asks for clarification or explanation. "What do you mean?" He tries to understand what is really meant. This is part of the provisional try.

5. The learner says he already knows or does it. Or he shows how he has been doing it for years, even though his actions don't match the suggestion. This suggests counterdependency.

6. The learner modifies and changes the suggestion in various ways. Then he discusses these changes with his helper. Hypothesis: He's willing to make a provisional try.

7. The learner acts as if he has been criticized personally. He gives a long justification of why he has been unable to do this earlier. Hypothesis: Counterdependency.

8. The learner or the group quibbles over terminology. The group attempts to decide whether they are talking about "honesty," "directness," "sincerity," or "genuineness." Each person has a little different nuance on the word he wants to use. Members of the group are trying to deal with the whole problem of, "Am I going to be controlled? Am I going to be dependent upon other people?" Hypothesis: Counterdependency. When a trusting relationship has been established, the remarks sound like this, "Well, you use different words than I do, but I think I know what you mean." When a trusting relationship has not been established, the remarks are, "Well, when you use the word so-and-so, I wish you wouldn't put it that way." The question is: Do both people know what it means?

9. The learner comments on how helpful someone has been to him. He says, "I've learned so much from your suggestion. You are so incisive. You have such wisdom, such insight." But he doesn't apply it. This suggests overt dependency and covert counterdependency. This is the way he keeps himself from changing. This is the way he won't have to worry about a provisional try expressing his weakness.

10. The learner intellectualizes about the suggestion. He talks about the theoretical basis for it, the philosophy of it and the technical details of it. He is absorbed in it, but leaves no implication for action. This is counterdependency.

11. Another very interesting approach that can occur with a helper is for the learner, not directly to him but to someone else, to question the helper's competence, education, background or experience. The action is counterdependency. The point is, "Will it work for you? Will you give it a good, reasonable try? Or, are you going to reject it because the helper doesn't have the qualifications you think she needs?"

These various kinds of responses to the threat of change have been presented so they may be used as a set of hypotheses. When another person questions a statement an individual has made, he should ask himself: "Am I being questioned because he wants to understand better and is ready to make a provisional try? Or, perhaps, does the question indicate he does not trust me and sees me as trying to coerce him into a change?"

PROCESSES OF INTERPERSONAL INFLUENCE

Self-Correcting Exercise

DIRECTIONS: Three processes of behavioral change are listed below. A number of examples depicting how people change are also listed. On the line in front of each example, write the letter corresponding to the illustrated process. Appropriate responses are listed on the back of this page.

Processes: A. Compliance B. Identification C. Internalization

_____ 1. The learner comments: "I had a very unpleasant experience with my supervising teacher. At various times when we were in conference, he'd remove his shoes and the ghastliest odor would fill the air. This didn't harm the fact, though, that I learned a great deal from our exchange of ideas. But, oh, those feet...."

_____ 2. Students return to the classroom after lunch, arguing over the results of a baseball game. The tardy bell rings, but the unrest continues as they slowly return to their seats. The supervising teacher has an open discussion, evaluating the situation with his students. Meanwhile the learner copies word for word what her supervising teacher has said... "So I'll know what to say when I'm up front and faced with a similar situation."

_____ 3. "If you behave yourselves for the next 15 minutes, we'll go inside for a break." Students quickly return to their seats, voices quiet down; students work steadily on assigned math problems.

DIRECTIONS: The roles a learner may play which affect interpersonal relationships are listed below. Examples describing these roles are also listed. On the line in front of each example, write the letter corresponding to the particular role.

Learner Roles: A. Realistic dependency C. Counterdependency
B. Unrealistic dependency D. Independence

_____ 4. The teacher continually interrupts her administrator during the discussion of a lesson, particularly when a suggestion for change is offered. The teacher eagerly points out the reasoning, the general principles affecting the administrator's idea, etc.; she is quick to point out why the suggestion doesn't help in her case.

_____ 5. A new teacher says, "Thank goodness the school district has all these fine books and films on the Civil War. What is the procedure for scheduling films in this district?"

_____ 6. Following a seminar on AAAS, a teacher responds very enthusiastically to this method of teaching science. The next day she prepares a lesson for her first graders where one of the science processes will be explored. During the preplanning session, she expresses her feelings of uncertainty and nervousness because, "I've never tried something like this before...but I'm anxious to see how it'll work with the children."

_____ 7. Upon recognizing her personal spelling problem, the supervisee repeatedly asks her supervising teacher to recheck the corrected spelling papers because, "there might be some errors I didn't catch."

Appropriate Responses

1. (C) INTERNALIZATION: The content of the behavior itself is seen as intrinsically rewarding to the individual--no matter where he got it. Learning becomes independent of the change agent and behavior becomes the learner's own behavior.

2. (B) IDENTIFICATION: Occurs when there is a relationship to someone else and the motivation to change is the satisfaction derived by defining oneself in relation to the other. The problem with identification is that the change is dependent upon the continual relation of the change agent.

3. (A) COMPLIANCE: The individual changes his behavior to receive a reward from the other or to avoid punishment. In compliance the change agent attempts to influence by control over rewards and punishment.

4. (C) COUNTERDEPENDENCY is where the individual rejects a suggestion without testing, without expressing his opinions or feelings or without considering changes or modifications of it. His behavior is still controlled because he does the opposite of the suggestions by the change agent.

5. (A) REALISTIC DEPENDENCY is where an individual temporarily needs special skills, but is not likely to need them often; therefore he depends on someone else for them. Realistic dependency helps the individual to increase his personal autonomy.

6. (D) INDEPENDENCE is where the individual accepts or rejects a suggestion after testing it. He wants to make sure he understands it, has questioned and expressed his opinions or feelings about it, has changed, amplified or added to it in some way. This attitude is called the provisional try. The person who is willing to make a provisional try is the person who will internalize his behavior. By testing the behavior against his own experiences and values, then modifying it, he insures his changed behavior will be congruent with his values. In this sense, he is exhibiting independent behavior.

7. (B) UNREALISTIC DEPENDENCY is where the individual needs a skill that he will continue to use and which he can provide for himself without undue cost, yet continues to depend on others for it. Dependency, when it is unrealistic, leads to loss of self-respect and to lack of autonomy and freedom.

STEP 15

PURPOSES

To provide opportunity for continued interaction, skill practice and feedback to trainees.

To provide opportunity to practice behavior roles.

ACTIVITIES

Practicum: 3 1/2 hours

Continued interaction facilitating progress toward goals

Administer Processes of Interpersonal Influence: Situational Exercise (OPTIONAL), pages 111-114

OBJECTIVES

The trainees will:

1. Examine the effects of behavioral roles in terms of the processes of changing behavior
2. Recognize how the group interacts with the trainer in terms of the behavioral roles of dependency (realistic or unrealistic), counterdependency or provisional try
3. Examine their personal learning modes in relation to the processes of behavior change

TRAINER'S INFORMATION

Processes of Interpersonal Influence: Situational Exercise provides a means for role playing in the small group. It reinforces concepts on dependency, counterdependency and provisional try as presented in Step 14. The exercise is optional because the group may have other process or task problems to consider. The trainer should not intervene with the exercise unless he thinks it will provide additional data pertinent to the growth of the group. It may be the exercise could be used more appropriately at a later time, Step 30, since it is particularly concerned with supervisor-teacher relationships.

Directions for administering are included with the exercise.

PROCESSES OF INTERPERSONAL INFLUENCE: SITUATIONAL EXERCISE

Supervisor Role

Directions: Divide the trainee group into role players and observers. Assign a supervisor's role for Situation I as described below to a member in the role-playing group. Assign each teacher role as described on the next page to the other members in the role-playing group. The observer group will rate the exercise by the method illustrated on page 113 Role play Situation I for five to ten minutes and discuss the results. Reassign roles and repeat as many Situations as desir d. Suggested questions for final discussion of the total situational exercise appear on page 114.

SITUATION I

Talks to group of student teachers about time of arrival and departure from school. Suggests they discuss this topic at length with their classroom supervising teacher.

SITUATION II

Stresses importance of adequate planning before teaching a lesson. Recommends each teacher prepare a lesson plan for the supervisor in advance so he can discuss it with the teacher before observing.

SITUATION III

Discusses importance of professional attitude outside classroom. Mentions conversation in lunch room, faculty rooms, with friends and family. Suggests improvement in this area.

SITUATION IV

Suggests some teachers have been extremely critical of methods used by their supervisors and have voiced criticism where they could be heard by students.

SITUATION V

Suggests materials and books borrowed from curriculum center and library be returned more promptly.

Processes of Interpersonal Influence:
Situational Exercise

Teacher Role

Directions: Without the knowledge of the observer group, individually assign remaining members of the role-playing group a teacher role as described below. The ability of each trainee to respond consistently in his role will have a direct effect on the success of this exercise.

TEACHER A

1. Agrees with suggestion without reservation.
2. Asks supervisor exactly what change should be made and which steps should be taken.

TEACHER B

1. Looks for reasons why suggestion won't work; finds flaws in it.
2. Questions competency of person who makes suggestion.
3. Says he already knows it--already does it.
4. Acts as if he has been personally criticized; gives long justification of why it hasn't already been done.
5. Distorts suggestion so it becomes a different topic altogether.

TEACHER C

1. Asks for clarification or explanation to see what supervisor is driving at.
2. Modifies suggestion and discusses various changes with supervisor.
3. Willing to make a provisional try to change situation.

Processes of Interpersonal Influence:
Situational Exercise

Observers' Rating Sheet

Directions: As the situational exercise is performed, observers will list in the appropriate column below those group members who exhibit characteristics of dependency, counter-dependency or provisional try. After each exercise the observers will discuss the role played by each member of the group and the accuracy of their observations.

SUPERVISOR	DEPENDENT (Looks to others for leadership)	COUNTERDEPENDENT (Objects to other's leadership)	WILLING TO MAKE PROVISIONAL TRY (Tentative Acceptance)
Situation I			
Situation II			
Situation III			
Situation IV			
Situation V			

Processes of Interpersonal Influence:
Situational Exercise

Implications

Directions: The suggested questions below should be discussed only after all role playing has been completed.

1. How do you establish an effective relationship with a teacher whose behavior is persistently counterdependent?

2. How could you help a teacher become more willing to make a provisional try and exhibit more independence?

3. What kinds of behavior in a supervisor-teacher relationship would you consider to be examples of:

   Realistic Dependency
   Unrealistic Dependency

4. As a supervisor, how do you help a teacher who exhibits characteristics of unrealistic dependency?

STEP 16

PURPOSE

To provide an opportunity for continued interaction, skill practice and feedback to trainees.

ACTIVITIES	OBJECTIVES
Practicum: 2 hours	The trainees will:
Continued interaction facilitating progress toward goals	1. Demonstrate ways of giving and receiving feedback on individual and group behavior
Administer "Who I'm Like" Exercise (OPTIONAL), or Hurt Feelings Exercise (OPTIONAL), page 116	

TRAINER'S INFORMATION

The "Who I'm Like" Exercise provides a means for generating additional group data on the way individuals perceive themselves in relation to the perceptions of other group members. The exercise also allows the trainees to practice describing behavior, speaking in specifics instead of generalities, avoiding judgmental statements, paraphrasing and describing feelings.

The Hurt Feelings Exercise provides a means for checking the accuracy of trainee perceptions about each other as a result of group occurrences which may have produced hurt feelings.

Each exercise serves a different purpose. The first exercise, "Who I'm Like," focuses on skill practice and perception data, while the second exercise, Hurt Feelings, provides an opportunity for the trainees to talk about things that hurt their feelings .

The exercises are optional and need not be used unless they provide a means for eliciting feedback not possible through normal group interaction.

"WHO I'M LIKE" EXERCISE

Each trainee privately selects one person in the group whom he considers to be most like himself, and one person whom he considers to be most unlike himself. After all have made their selections, start around the group with a volunteer trainee revealing the identities of the persons in the group he feels most like and unlike. He should give the reason for his selection. Other members should participate by giving their own perceptions, which may or may not agree with the trainee's perceptions. The procedure is then repeated by each of the other trainees.

In performing this exercise the trainer should help the trainees to practice all the communication skills, be specific instead of general, and avoid making judgmental statements.

HURT FEELINGS EXERCISE

Write the following two incomplete sentences on the board:

1. My feelings get hurt when...

2. When my feelings get hurt, I...

Each trainee writes one or two endings for each of the above incomplete sentences. The completed sentences then are handed to the trainer. The trainer reads one of the completed sentences to the group and the trainees try to guess by the nature of the response which group member wrote it. The group members who supply the guesses should describe events, behavior and/or feelings which support each guess.

This exercise provides an opportunity to check the accuracy of trainee perceptions about each other as a result of group occurrences which may have produced hurt feelings. In other words, it illuminates those behaviors exhibited by various members which may or may not have indicated hurt feelings.

STEP 17

PURPOSES

To present an overview of the rationale, content and processes of systematic and objective analysis of instruction which serve as a base of information for reference in subsequent activities.

To present information which details the shift in focus from interpersonal relations and group development to activities which deal more directly with the analysis of teaching.

ACTIVITIES

Lecture: 30 minutes
A MODEL FOR SYSTEMATICALLY IMPROVING INSTRUCTION

The rationale, content and processes of systematic and objective analysis of instruction

A Model For Systematically Improving Instruction, Trainee Content Outline, page 118

Goals for Systematic and Objective Analysis of Instruction, page 126

OBJECTIVES

The trainees will:

1. Relate the seven principles of the helping process to the cycle of systematic and objective analysis of instruction

2. Recognize a model for systematically improving instruction

TRAINER'S INFORMATION

This lecture is transitional and is designed to begin shifting the content focus from interpersonal relations and group development to activities which deal more directly with the analysis of teaching.

The content is intended to be presented in lecture form to the large workshop group. Each trainer can best use the content as a guide. He should adapt and vary the presentation to fit his own instructional style. A skeletal outline follows on page 118, which can be distributed to the trainees for their use before beginning the presentation.

Distribute the handout on Goals for Systematic and Objective Analysis of Instruction after completion of the presentation. The trainer should direct the trainees' attention to the goals and indicate that questions about them can be discussed in the practicum group. Up to this point the trainees have been working on Goals 1, 2, 3, 4 and 10.

A MODEL FOR SYSTEMATICALLY IMPROVING INSTRUCTION

Trainee Content Outline

Principles of the helping process:

1. The helper and the learner develop a shared understanding.

2. The helper and learner exchange full information.

3. The learner attempts to achieve his own goals.

4. The learner makes a provisional try.

5. The learner, after making a provisional try, needs data on what he actually did.

6. The learner also needs data on the effect of his performance.

7. The learner accomplishes changes in performance one step at a time (successive approximation).

A MODEL FOR SYSTEMATICALLY IMPROVING INSTRUCTION*

One way to describe the process of improving classroom teaching performance is in terms of the relationship between the person being helped and the helper. In this context improving instruction is essentially a "helping process" and can be based on fundamental principles of consultation. The principles involved apply equally well between a teacher and a pupil, a principal and a teacher or between a supervisor and a supervisee. Seven principles which relate to this helping process and constitute a model for systematically improving instruction are described below.

First, the helper and the learner must develop a shared understanding which combines how each sees the situation. This means establishing a different kind of relationship than is often done. The usual way of conceiving of the relationship between supervisor and supervisee, principal and teacher, or helper and learner, is that the helper tries to change the learner. Instead, this principle suggests both parties should take joint action to solve the problem. In other words, they become partners conducting an inquiry into a problem which the learner wishes to solve. It's a special kind of problem and the solution requires increased competence on the part of the learner. It's not a matter of the helper solving the problem for the learner, but rather the learner solving his own problem with the assistance of the helper. If the learner solves the problem, he has gained increased competence with which to meet new problems. This requires a joint sharing of the views about the nature of the problem and the steps to be taken in reaching a solution.

The assumption underlying this principle is that two people will more likely engage in the same course of action (reach the same decision), if they have the same objectives or opinions concerning the situation, classroom, lesson and pupils. If they have the same opinions and objectives, they would probably agree on the action. They would more likely have the same opinions if they had the same facts. This assumption is illustrated on page 121, by the diagram on Development of Shared Understanding.

A difference between the actions taken by the learner and what the helper would have done should be approached by creating a shared understanding of their meaning. There must be a shared understanding of what each thought should be accomplished, the predictions each was making, the explanations each made about the current situation and the facts involved. Shared understanding results when each person indicates his objectives, opinions and facts available at the particular time.

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*Adapted in part from lectures by:

John L. Wallen at the Clinical Supervision Institute, Portland State University, Portland, Oregon, 1965.

Morris Cogan at the University of Pittsburgh, Summer Session, 1964.

A Model for Systematically Improving Instruction

Shared understanding between two people is limited by the amount of firsthand experience they have in common. It is one thing to be told something; it is another thing to experience it. To the extent that two people can experience the same situation, they communicate better.

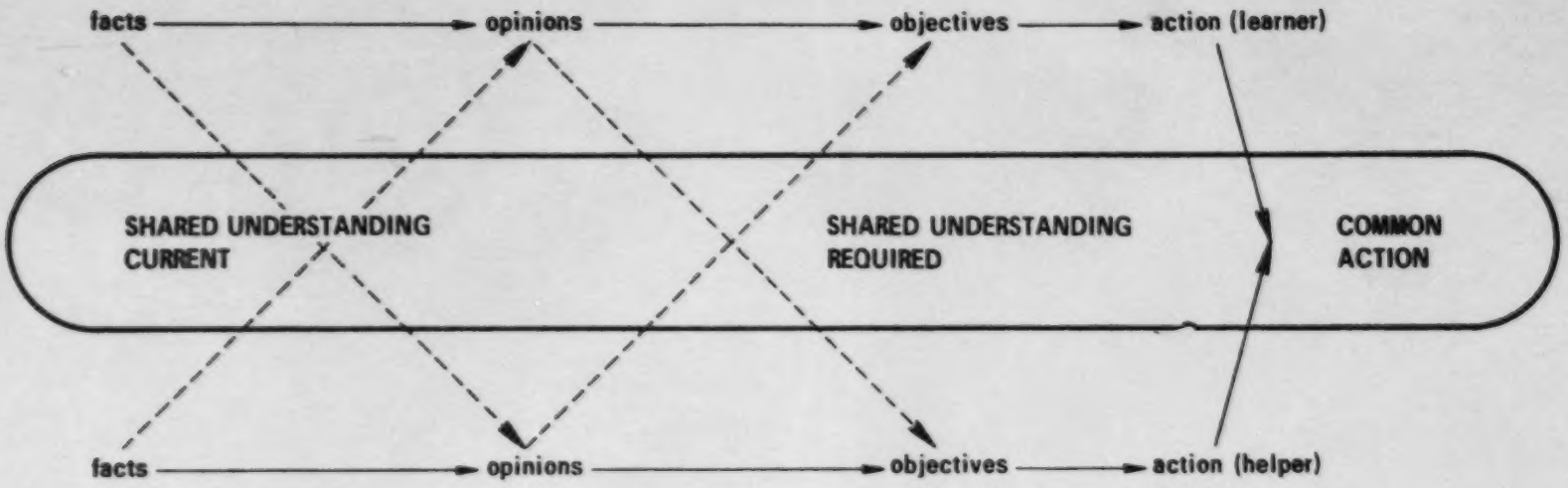
Second, shared understanding requires full information be exchanged. But full information will be exchanged only in a trusting relationship. Therefore, unless the learner feels safe and free to be himself, to talk about his inadequacies, the behaviors he wants to change or his weaknesses, there isn't going to be a full sharing of information. Thus, there will not be a shared understanding. A helper should remember his actions will be viewed in terms of his relationship with the learner. The first task, then, is to establish the trusting relationship which was defined and described earlier.

The third principle is that the learner must be attempting to achieve his goals not the helper's. It could be said that the learner is always attempting to achieve his goals. If, however, the learner is working to achieve goals set for him by the helper, his true goals are to please the helper, to avoid disapproval. In short, the learning process becomes one of learning how to get along with the helper, not of learning how to solve problems with increased competencies. Therefore, it is important to start from the basis that a person is always going to be working to solve his own problems, to achieve his own goals. The helper's task is to find out what the learner's goals are, and if they can be influenced in a more helpful direction. This principle implies the learner should help decide the standards of effective performance in advance. His reward will come from accomplishment, rather than general praise from an external source. In short, he's attempting to meet his own goals, and because he has helped arrive at the criteria as to how they are met, the resulting behavior can be internalized.

Fourth, there will be no learning unless the learner makes a provisional try. That is, he must expose his behavior. He must do something. He must take a risk. He must provide firsthand data for inquiry into the problem he is attempting to solve. For example, if a student teacher needs to develop skill in lesson planning, he begins by writing lesson plans. If a teacher wants to learn how to ask certain kinds of questions, he begins by formulating and verbalizing the questions in a simulated or real situation. Contrary to this approach is a teacher asking for demonstration lessons from a supervisor so he can learn how to perform certain functions. Demonstrations can be useful as a means of showing a technique, but if a teacher wants to change his own behavior, he will have to try something himself to see the results. In short, he must make a provisional try.

Fifth, after the learner has made a provisional try, he must receive information about what he did. He must receive information about his actual behavior, about performance. The helper does not provide him information about his personality; nor attempt to discuss his attitude.

DEVELOPMENT OF SHARED UNDERSTANDING



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One doesn't say, "You're going to need more of a sense of humor. Develop a sense a humor." The supervisor does not say, "Be more dynamic and interesting. Every teacher has a little ham in him. What you have to do is ham it up." Instead, the supervisor provides feedback by talking about the teacher's actions and how his lack of dynamics can be compensated for by employing teaching techniques which do not require it. Information about his actions may be gathered by taking a verbatim transcript of the lesson, by using a tape recording or videotape, but in any case, it is a record of his actions. The goal is that the teacher be able to see his performance as others do instead of through the filter of what he intended to accomplish.

Sixth, in addition to performance data, the learner must receive data on the results of his performance, about its effect. Performance data tells the learner what he did; effect data tells him what effect it produced. The helper encourages the learner to steer his behavior by the consequences he produces. The learner should help decide himself what kinds of information he wants to guide his improvement. Whatever it is, he needs to know not only what he did but its effect. For example, it may be a teacher's intent in the classroom to develop independent, noncompliant learner behavior. If, however, the teacher continually justifies his behavior, makes reference to himself, serves as the only source of rewards for pupils and in general behaves contrary to his intentions, the effect more likely will be to produce dependent or counterdependent learners.

The final principle is the principle of successive approximation. The principle of successive approximation means a person does not try to accomplish the entire change of performance at one time or in one step. Rather, one finds the logic in the performance indicating the order in which the desired changes are to be accomplished. The supervisor and supervisee, helper and learner, rank the desired changes in relation to the objectives and jointly decide what should be accomplished first, second, third and so on. For example, the change a teacher desires may be to improve his manner of verbally influencing pupils to participate and interact in class. That is, to be more indirect than direct. Assume for illustrative purposes that direct verbal influence includes teaching strategies that are predominantly lecturing, giving information and directions, criticizing pupils and justifying authority. To bring about change the goal would be to identify and prioritize other teaching strategies which could be substituted for present strategies and would indirectly influence more pupils to participate. These indirect teaching strategies might include accepting pupils' feelings, reinforcing pupil responses, building on pupil ideas and asking questions. Instead of working on all of these indirect strategies simultaneously, the teacher would select one specific strategy and determine the steps to be taken or teaching behaviors to be developed so he can perform the strategy appropriately.

A Model for Systematically Improving Instruction

The principle of successive approximation means identifying and describing specifically the desired terminal behavior and then ordering the steps to be taken in accomplishing the desired change.

These seven principles of consultation constitute a psychological rationale upon which the improvement of instruction can be built. Translation of these principles into practice can be achieved through the use of a supervision cycle (so-called because operationally it is continuous and repetitive) which includes five phases: planning, observation, analysis, strategy and conference. Each phase in this cycle represents certain principles of the consultation process. The complete cycle serves as the basic model for systematically improving instruction. See the diagram on page 124.

The planning phase of the supervision cycle sets the stage for the other phases of the cycle to follow. Although the functions within this phase vary and have different purposes, in terms of the consultation principles it is essentially an opportunity for the supervisor and supervisee to exchange information and develop a shared understanding of the goals to be accomplished. More specificially, it is in this phase that the supervisor and supervisee begin to establish a trust relationship, that the supervisee makes explicit his plans for teaching by verbalizing the content of the lesson to the supervisor, and the supervisor performs his role as a helper by reflecting the supervisee's ideas and providing alternative suggestions which allow him to modify or stabilize his teaching intentions.

In the observation phase the teacher makes a provisional try by exposing his teaching behavior, by implementing a lesson which produces performance data. The performance data duplicate what the supervisor observes happening and are recorded in verbatim transcript form. The supervisor writes down as comprehensively and objectively as possible what he sees and hears. He avoids writing value judgments or recording general impressions about the lesson. It is important that the data constitute an accurate and complete representation of what transpired.

In the analysis phase of the cycle the performance data are examined and organized into a manageable form. The method of analysis consists of identifying and determining patterns of behavior (recurring behaviors) which characterize the teacher's performance style and classroom events. This method of analyzing the data is based on the assumption that human behavior is patterned and, therefore, teaching behavior also can be patterned. The patterns of behavior then are examined in the context of the performance data and in light of the real and apparent or hypothesized effects which have been or may be produced. The performance data are used to substantiate the existence or nonexistence of problems and as a basis for developing solutions to classroom teaching problems.

A MODEL FOR SYSTEMATICALLY IMPROVING INSTRUCTION

CYCLE	PRINCIPLES
Planning	Develop Shared Understanding Exchange Full Information Identify Learner Goals
Observation	Make Provisional Try Obtain Performance Data
Analysis	Examine Performance Data Determine and / or Hypothesize Effect Data
Strategy	Order Possible Behavioral Changes (Successive Approximation)
Conference	Provide Feedback on Performance and Effect Data Specify Desired Change

The strategy phase of the cycle is for making decisions about how the conference is to be conducted. It entails sorting out the patterns of behavior in the performance and effect data and selecting one or more patterns relevant to the teacher's classroom goals for consideration in the conference. If the pattern or patterns selected are incongruous with the goals, alternative teaching behaviors are identified and ordered in a manner that will permit the teacher to progress step by step toward improved classroom performance. Implicit in strategy preparation is provision for latitude in the content and direction of the conference itself.

In the conference phase the supervisor provides feedback to the teacher on his performance and the effects of the selected behavior pattern(s). The focus is on performance, on the teacher's actions and behavior, and not on the person of the teacher. Desired changes in the teacher's mode of operation are specified jointly and the means for achieving the changes are made explicit. Provisions are made then for repeating the cycle as warranted by circumstances in the situation.

The foregoing treatment of the supervision cycle has, by design, been brief. It is intended to serve only as an introduction to the cycle and to illustrate its relation to the principles of consultation. The remaining practicums and seminars will concentrate on the cycle and its application as a model for systematically improving instruction.

GOALS FOR SYSTEMATIC AND OBJECTIVE ANALYSIS OF INSTRUCTION

The trainees will:

1. Demonstrate provisionally different behaviors as a means to internalizing learning.

2. Demonstrate interpersonal communication skills such as paraphrasing, perception checks, behavior descriptions, describing feelings and freeing responses.

3. Demonstrate increased interdependence in a group by applying the principles of effective group process.

4. Demonstrate skill in establishing interpersonal relationships with others by applying the principles for building trust.

5. Plan instructional objectives with a teacher which include observable pupil behavior, conditions for learning and criteria of acceptable performance.

6. Observe a teaching performance and record in verbatim transcript most of the verbal and nonverbal behavior.

7. Analyze the transcript from the observation for patterns of teaching and learning behavior.

8. Plan strategy for a conference based on analysis of the transcript.

9. Conduct a conference which enables the teacher to gain insight into his teaching and possible alternative behaviors.

10. Share reactions to the critical analyses of one's own and other's performance in relation to the objectives of this program.

STEP 18

PURPOSES

To allow for discussion of objectives and interaction toward goals.

To provide trainees with an opportunity for initial involvement in the cycle for systematic improvement of instruction.

To provide an opportunity for recording data in verbatim transcript form.

ACTIVITIES

Practicum: 1 3/4 hours (approximately)

Provide practice in data collection by using audiotape, videotape or film of classroom teaching episode (not furnished) or by having two or three trainees role play a partial teaching episode from a transcript (OPTIONAL), 131-149

OBJECTIVES

The trainees will:

1. Recognize the goals for subsequent group activities
2. Recognize process problems which occur during the discussion of content
3. Demonstrate employing such techniques as sampling, abbreviation and symbolizing to record classroom data

TRAINER'S INFORMATION

The trainees may be anxious about subsequent group activities. Some practicum time might be spent answering questions and in general discussion of the goals and procedures.

The shift in focus at this point may induce the trainees to neglect process concerns. The trainer should be aware of this tendency. The group should continue to deal with process considerations during this and subsequent steps. This suggestion is congruent with the principle that whenever a group senses trouble getting work done, it tries to find out why. An effective group shifts easily from working on the task to discussing its own processes.

STEP 18

Trainer's Information

At this point the trainees need to begin developing skills for recording classroom talk. The trainer should suggest ways which will help the trainees increase the amount of data they can record. Many of the trainees will feel it is impossible to write verbatim transcripts. This assumption is correct. However, the intent is to record as much data as possible by employing various techniques. Typical suggestions may include:

1. Using letters to symbolize words (e.g., T = teacher, p = pupil, q = question, x = ask, c = see, etc.)

2. Abbreviating words by omitting vowels and consonants, a form of briefhand (e.g., rd = read, abt = about, shd = should, fl = feel, cl = call, pos = possible, etc.)

3. Recording data by "sampling" extended talk (e.g., writing a complete sentence(s), marking omissions with... or ---, and then writing additional complete sentences

4. Recording the numeral "10" at five second intervals to signify extended periods of silence or nondiscernible talk

5. Indenting for pupil talk. This eliminates the need to label pupil or teacher talk since all pupil talk is indented

If an audiotape, videotape or film is not available for practicing verbatim transcript writing, have two or three trainees role play a transcript by reading teacher and pupil parts at a normal classroom pace. The other trainees in the group should practice recording from the role-playing situation. However, this exercise of practicing verbatim transcript writing is optional.

NOTE: If the group is still working on process and does not appear to be ready yet for the exercise on data collection, it can be omitted. However, the above information for facilitating the accumulation of data should be presented in Step 26. At that time the trainees actually begin practicing the skill of writing verbatim transcripts during classroom observation.

STEP 19

PURPOSE

To provide an opportunity for analyzation of transcripts for patterns of teacher and pupil behavior.

ACTIVITIES

Practicum: 1 1/2 hours (approximately)

Exercise to provide practice in data analysis (OPTIONAL)

Use transcripts of teaching episodes, pages 131-149
- Science, Second Grade
- Reading, Fourth Grade
- Science, Sixth Grade
- Arithmetic, Eighth Grade
- U.S. Government, Tenth Grade
- American History, Eleventh Grade
- Advanced Placement English, Twelfth Grade

OBJECTIVES

The trainees will:

1. Identify patterns of behavior from selected transcripts of teaching episodes
2. Assign reasonably appropriate names to the recurring behaviors which have been identified

TRAINER'S INFORMATION

The trainer can use any of the transcripts, pages 131-149, for this step. Transcripts for various grade levels are provided to allow using the ones appropriate for each practicum group.

A pattern is defined as a description of recurring behavior. It describes observable behavior that is recurring and does not accuse, impute motive or make a value judgment. In essence, a pattern is a behavior description. For example, a teacher may consistently repeat pupil responses. This recurring behavior is a pattern of repeating pupil responses--a description of observable behavior. There are no set patterns which characteristically describe all teaching or learning behavior. The trainees are expected to generate patterns of behavior from examination of the data. The name or "handle" attached to a particular pattern is immaterial, except that it should reasonably describe the behavior. However, some names for typical patterns have become rather common which might be suggested by the trainer to give specificity to the behavior described. Some typical examples include:

1. Multiple questioning technique
2. Self-reference
3. Teacher-pupil-teacher interaction
4. Short-answer responses
5. Teacher building on pupil ideas
6. Teacher praise of pupils
7. Pupil self-evaluation
8. Teacher repeats pupil responses

STEP 19

Trainer's Information

The trainer also should mention that a pattern only describes behavior that is apparent and occurring in a classroom. A pattern does not describe something that is not happening. For example, if a teacher characteristically does not praise pupils when responding to them, one does not say the teacher has a pattern of not praising pupils. Instead, the teacher responds to the pupils in some other observable way. That is the behavior which should be described.

There may be a tendency on the part of the trainees to want a lesson plan for each transcript they attempt to analyze. It is unnecessary. The focus should be on analyzing the transcript for patterns of behavior and not on determining whether or not the lesson was congruent with the teacher's goals.

NOTE: If the group is still highly process oriented, this step also may be treated as optional at this time in the program. The content of this step can be incorporated into Step 21.

T: OK? All ready?

Pps: Hum! Hum!

T: I think you can all see. (Pause) I want to look at our lunch menu. Fourteen of you are buying today.

Pps: Yep!!

T: (Reads the menu) I'm glad I'm buying.

P: What is grapefruit?

T: It's like an orange.

P: It's that stuff you put sugar on.

T: How else is it different?

P: It's sour.

T. What about its size? (3 hands)

P: (Interrupting) What's on the menu for Friday?

T: We'll read that tomorrow. Where are the fruits and vegetables from?

Pps: The garden.

T: All of them?

Pps: Noooo!!

P: Some from seeds.

P: Some from trees.

T: Are trees plants?

(5 hands: some pupils shout out---Miss Jones)

T: I would like to call on people. We haven't decided if a tree is a plant.

P: They have roots.

T: What are the roots for?

P: A tree gets its food from the ground.

T: We saw the roots growing on our beans didn't we? What else are roots for?

P: Water.

T: So roots gather water. Any other reasons? (Pause) Have you ever pulled up a weed?

(8 hands, enthusiasm)

P: (Shouting out) I pulled and pulled but it held on.

T: What part was holding it?

P: The root.

T: The root. So the root gathers water and holds the plant.

(Sketching roots on a chart. This is the beginning of a picture of a plant.)

T: What other parts are there?

P: A stem.

T: A stem! What is a stem?

P: It has the seeds inside.

T: The seeds?

P: It moves the flower.

T: What else?

P: Water goes up it.

(Some boys poking each other)

T: I see some who don't want to learn. Billy, change seats with Sue.

T. What else is on a plant?

P: Leaves.

T: What else?

(Teacher drawing parts of plant on chart)

P: Buds.

T: Uh uh.

P: Flowers.

T: Right, some of you have been observing.

P: Put a tomato on it.

T: A tomato? Alright.

P: You've got a flower and a tomato on the same plant.

T: Someone mentioned seeds. What part would you cut to find the seeds?

P: The stem.

T: The stem? Where do you think, Bobby?

Bob: The root?

T: The root?-----We call this a tomato. Are there any seeds in a tomato?

Pps: Yes!!!!!

T: They're <u>in</u> the tomato?

P: You eat them.

P: Teacher, I know a plant with a big ball on the root.

T: Oh yes! That plant stores its food there.

(T. elaborates)

T: (Holding paper sack) Now, I brought some foods. I'll need some volunteers----those who sit quietly.

(12 hands)

T: We'll try to figure out what part of the plant it is from.

(Boy called to take out a tangerine)

Pps: An orange!

T: No, that's a tangerine. Where's it from?

P: A tree?

T: Is a tree a plant?

Pps: Yes!

T: Does it have roots?

Pps: Yes!!!

T: A stem?

Pps: Yes!!

T: A flower?

Pps: Yes!!

T: Let's cut this tangerine open.

(Showed seeds)

T: You see the seeds are in the fruit.

P: I know one with no seeds.

(T. does not respond)

T: This is the fruit. What is the fruit for?

P: To look pretty!

T: The fruit holds the seeds.

(T. elaborates)

T: Let's reach into the sack again.

(15 hands)

T: Teresa.

(Teresa pulls out an apple.)

P: I want to eat it.

T: Let's make a list of the parts of the plant we use for food. (root, stem, leaf)

READING, FOURTH GRADE

The primary objective was to have the pupils identify with the feelings of the story characters.

T: Now, monitors, please pass out our reading books.

(Writes "Tony" on blackboard)

T: Yesterday, we were reading about Tony. Where was he living?

P: Costa Rico.

T: Where is Costa Rico located?

P: Central America.

T: Yes, Central America. What did we decide about this land, due to the climate, that people might be different?

P: It's hot.

T: Yes, it's hot.

P: Things they grow are different.

T: Alright, things that grow are different. How does this affect Tony?

P: He could get a job picking coffee beans.

T: Yes, he could get a job picking coffee beans. What is so very important to Tony? What does he feel?

P: He has a secret he couldn't tell his Grandfather, his Mother or Father.

T: What was so unusual about the secret?

P: He bought something for Grandfather.

T: Now, before we get ahead of ourselves, let's turn to page 172.

(Turns to board and writes the word "secret" on board)

T: What was his real feeling? What happens to Grandfather's oxen?

Pps: Died.

T: Alright, they died. Why are oxen so important?

P: No tractor or money to buy it.

T: Alright, the secret then is to get Grandfather an ox. What do you think about Tony at this point? What kind of a boy is he?

P: He can't do it.

T: What is your basis?

P: Just can't do it.

(Class looks at picture in book)

P: They didn't get much money in Costa Rico.

P: He is unselfish, he wanted to buy something for Grandfather rather than for himself.

T: What are some words we could use to describe Tony at this time?

P: Sad.

T: Alright.

P: Mad.

P: Unhappy.

P: Angry.

T: Why was he angry?

P: He was young and all jobs were too hard and he couldn't do them.

T: Anyone else have an idea?

P: Disgusted.

T: Alright, disgusted. He may feel disgusted because he can't do it.

P: Troubled.

T: Alright, that's a good word. All this is involved with the secret Tony has within himself. What does Tony decide to do about this problem? Is he just satisfied with feeling, about feeling this way? What does he decide to do?

P: Get a job.

T: Yes, get a job. How does he go about getting this job?

P: Pick coffee beans.

T: What kind of job is picking coffee beans?

P: Hard.

T: Can you think of a better word? Can you think of another one?

P: Rough.

P: Difficult.

T: Alright, it is difficult to pick coffee beans. How does he feel? What is our vocabulary word? What does our story say?

P: Ache.

T: Alright, ache. What industry do we have in our valley. . . ?

Pps: Pears.

T: Can you describe how he feels when he is picking coffee beans? Let's get some ideas. Who hasn't been speaking?

P: Sleepy.

T: (Laughs) Sleepy. Why should he be sleepy at this time of day? What does our story tell us about how long he had been working?

P: Until lunch time.

T: How long had he been working?

P: Five hours.

T: OK, five hours. OK, let's describe how he felt.

P: Sore.

P: Muscles are pulled.

T: This is a good expression. Let's leave his arms. What else?

P: Shoulders.

P: He had to stand on his tip toes.

T: Alright, he had to stand on his tip toes. What's the natural thing Tony does?

P: Go to sleep.

T: Does this help him earn money? What does the book say?

P: No.

P: He didn't earn anything at all.

P: He didn't go to sleep at lunch.

T: Prove it.

(Pupil reads)

T: How long did it take before his arms began to ache?

P: One hour.

P: Three hours.

T: Why. . . ?

P: His arms ached so hard.

T: What do you think of Tony now? First, you thought he was unselfish.

(T. reviews story)

T: What do you think now?

P: He is a little too young for the work.

T: Good thought. What makes you think he is too young?

P: Too short.

T: Why didn't he get a ladder?

P: Didn't have any.

P: Lazy.

T: Now what do you think? Is he going to give up now?

P: Yes.

T: Did you finish your story?

P: He gives up picking coffee beans.

T: Alright, did this stop his ambition?

P: He tells Grandfather his troubles, but not his secret.

P: They make a toy cart and ox.

T: How did Tony feel when he woke up?

P: Get in trouble and get fired 'cause he joined up with coffee pickers.

T: How does he feel?

P: Disgusted.

P: Worried.

P: Angry.

P: Mad.

T. These are wonderful ideas. How do you feel when you are not living up to what you want? How do you feel when you are failing?

P: Angry.

T: You keep using this word. What did the story say to make you say "angry"?

T: Friday, we discussed something. Who can tell me what it was?

P: Mixtures.

T: What about mixtures?

P: They are made of two things.

T: There's another factor---something else. Douglas?

(Silence)

T: What are the basic parts that make elements?

Douglas: Well, what I would say is that in a mixture you don't always use the same amounts.

T: Very good.

(Writes "NaCl" on board, asks how much sodium and chloride in salt)

P: One part of each.

T: OK. Now how about concrete, cement?

(Writes column headings on the board: mixture, compound, elements)

T: Why is this symbol like it is?

(Writes "H_2O" on board)

P: How come water down south tastes different?

T: Different mixtures, different places. How about this symbol?

(Points to H_2O)

P: I saw a book with H O H.

(Teacher recaps disconnected comments and asks if compounds, elements and mixtures are common knowledge)

P: Yes, yes.

T: Were they always?

P: No, no.

T: Greeks had a theory--the atomic theory--to explain angels, fire, and so on.

(Gives resume of Greek explanation of matter with examples of earth equated with solid, air equated with lightness, water equated with cold, fire equated with hot and dry)

T: Greeks decided all elements were a combination of two or more of the above items. Then Aristotle added the idea of essence. Came the alchemists. Doug, what do you remember?

Douglas: They were ancient.

T: (Silence) Anyone remember?

Well, they thought that lead plus essence made gold.

Pps: Oh, oh.

T: Well, today scientists know more. Lavoisier...

(Girl turns to look at clock; boy is whistling; several students looking around, though most are quiet)

(T. refers to her college test list and growing table of elements)

T: Have you heard of anyone called alchemists?

Doug: No.

T: Today alchemist means fake. Science has progressed.

P: Did the Greeks ever think that fire would burn up the bones?

T: They wouldn't have included fire if they hadn't thought it would help in explaining the animal structure.

P: They put it in for "dry."

T: Perhaps. I think they put it in for "heat." Maybe you'd like to look it up in a book.

P: If they thought fire was in a person and that person drank water, how come it didn't put the fire out?

T: Maybe you could look that up. If we're talking about atoms, what's another word?

P: Molecules.

T: June had something interesting. If you have a box of molecules and you heat them, they mix.

P: Everything in the world is molecules.

T: Yes.

(Writes "molecular theory" on board)

T: Who can read it?

P: Molecular theory.

T: June told us about molecules. We have molecular theory. Molecules then are always moving. How many molecules are in a thing?

P: Millions?

T: Yes. But let's take one molecule.

P: H_2O has two hydrogen atoms and one oxygen atom.

T: Well, it's coming from a book or did you work it out?

P: From a chemistry book.

T: I have a book; let's look it up.

P: If there are atoms all over the place, how can they be in the water?

T: How many molecules in a gulp of water?

P: Million?

P: More?

P: Three atoms in a molecule.

P: Seventeen atoms in a molecule.

Omission

T: Carmalita has an interesting thing to think about. The difference between ice and water--did we decide? And what is water in air?

P: Steam.

P: Vapor?

T: What is the scientific word? A better word than vapor?

(Silence)

T: Gas.

Douglas: Well, I was going to talk about something different.

(Goes off on TV science fiction)

T: This gives you some idea of what to think about. Is this fiction?

P: No.

T: There's some truth in it?

P: Yes.

(Class very quiet and courteous but most not paying attention)

P: If it gets cold enough, do molecules stop moving?

(Repeats question and turns it to class)

P: Snow and ice get real cold.

T: How about tables and chairs? I don't see them moving. You might want to find out. Oh, something else. Does temperature make any difference?

Joe: What if we didn't have molecules? What would happen?

(Turns Joe's question back to class)

P: A man shot another man and the molecules went all over the room.

T: More science fiction?

P: No.

T: There are lots of ideas.

P: Do molecules die?

P: What would happen to molecules if someone was dropped in acid?

T: We have been talking about the arithmatic involved in buying and selling prices, and this week we've been talking specifically about the cost of installment. Now, to help us a little more with computation involved in installment buying, class, I think we ought to practice a little bit more with some problems that you have been encountering in your assignments this week. To get us off to a good start in our math class today, I'm going to ask Betty to read for us, please, the introductory material that appears in your text book for today's assignment. Would you read that for us, please, Betty?

(Betty reads assignment aloud--time 35 seconds)

T: Thank you, Betty, real fine reading. Does this paragraph, class, suggest to you the ways people...might use installment buying? Just who might use this sort of thing? LaDonna, maybe you'd like to answer.

P: Oh, people use installment buying quite a bit, for buying such things as appliances, cars, and things like this that they don't have the cash to pay right away.

T: Good thinking. Mr. Patterson, do you know of anyone who might be a-using installment buying--the kinds of people who might use installment buying? Just a certain few? What is your thinking about it?

P: Well, just about everybody uses installment buying, and there are many ways you can use it it...Many useful things like...

T: That's fine. Thank you very much. Today, I wanted to work with a problem involving this little item here.

(Starts unfolding homemade sketch about 2 1/2' x 4')

Now some students of mine were laughing at me the other day in an earlier class about my artistic drawing, and this is supposed to be a freezer--in case you didn't know that. Alright--and this freezer--now--let's set up our probelm this way. Now, Holly, you may have to write some of these facts on your Braillewriter if you can't remember them. (Holly is a blind girl) Now, let's look at the cash price of this freezer. It says it's $240--the cash price of the freezer. $240. We probably need a man's name for someone who is buying, and let's call him Mr. Beck, and we'll know who we're talking about. Mr. Beck is buying a freezer. Now, here are the facts for the problem: Mr. Beck has said that he will pay 10 percent down on this freezer--10 percent down. And Mr. Beck also agrees to pay $12 a month for 21 months--$12 a month for 21 months. Okay, let me pause just a moment here, until Holly gets this down for us.

(Pauses for Holly to record on Braillewriter or to utilize abacus)

T: Good, real good, Holly, you're working real fast--we like to see this. Now, let's work out a few problems with these facts: First, recall what percentage of the down payment on this particular freezer, Gordon.

P: Ten percent.

T: Ten percent. Now we need to find what 10 percent is of $240. What mathematical solution--what mathematical system shall we use to find this kind of answer? LaDonna?

P: Multiply.

T: We're going to multiply. We're gonna multiply the percentage time the cash price, aren't we Holly? Okay. I suspect already that Holly has the answer, but let's see what it is. Holly, as soon as you think you have an answer, let me know. Ten percent of $240.

P: I've an answer.

T: Alright, let's see what it is.

P: $24?

T: Very good. $24. Very good. Is that what you two had over here? $24. Alright, now you can call the $24 part of the down payment Mr. Beck is going to pay for the freezer. Now, let's remember other facts: How much did he agree to pay monthly? Anyone?

P: $12.

T: He agrees to pay $12 a month--this we call the monthly payment--$12. Okay? Now, how long did he agree to pay this monthly payment?

P: 21 months.

T: 21 months. Alright. We have to find, now, how much money this would be over 21 months' time, Holly. So we're going to multiply, aren't we? We're going to multiply the number of months times the amount of each month. Can you do that? I know you can.

(To others)

T: When you boys and girls find the answer, would you hold it up...so I can see whether or not you've got the right answer. Okay--you both have the right ans--maybe the right answer--we'll see what Miss...(Holly) comes up with for the answer--have you got it yet, Holly?

P: Yes.

T: And what do you think it is?

P: 288?

T: $288. Something's wrong. Holly, something is wrong. This isn't the correct answer. Erase your abacus, and start it again.

(Holly complying)

T: Agreed that you're in the 200-category--but a little bit too much money. Now, Gordon has his answer, and, Gordon, can you maybe help Holly a little bit on this one? Tell her what the answer is for the problem we're working now?

P: The answer is $252, Holly.

T: Holly, can you see where you've perhaps made a mistake? Can you tell me how--where you think you could have made a mistake?

P: I think in my multiplying.

T: Well, that's probably true, but why did you come up with the answer you did? Was it in the addition part of the multiplying, or was it maybe in another part?

P: Another part.

T: Have you any idea where?

P: I'm not sure.

T: This is something that you work on, Holly, so you can be able to recognize exactly where you made errors. This is where the Braillewriter would come in handy on a problem like this one. Okay, now, do you remember, Holly, the amount that Mr. Beck promises to pay in addition to the cash down payment is $252? Okay. Now, the next step is obvious. How much money will Mr. Beck pay for his freezer, totally--the total amount? The total amount that Mr. Beck will pay for his freezer. What's your thinking right now, Holly?

P: About how to do the problem.

T: Good. Is it...add, subtract, multiply, divide?

P: Add.

T: You want to add. Okay. Do you know what two facts you're going to add?

P: $252, and....

T: And the down payment, right?

P: Yes.

T: Okay. And have you got that already? Now, Donna, do you have an answer for this one yet?

P: I'm not sure if I have the right one.

T: Oh. Did you add the down payment and the amount Mr. Beck promised to pay monthly--or $12 a month, or 21 a month? Holly, how are you doing on it?

P: I can't remember what the down payment is.

T: Did you check with your Braillewriter?

P: I--uh--I don't have my Braillewriter...on the down payment.

T: Why do you imagine our forefathers established three branches of government? Rick, why have three? Why should I have one to enforce, make and interpret?

P: Less confusing.

T: Less confusing? More or less confusing?

P: Less.

P: We have a system of checks and balances.

T: Don't you think one party system would be just as good?

P: It would be easily swayed...become a monarchy.

T: So this is not what they wanted initially. So, Rick, you would combine all three or keep separate? You wouldn't go for having all three in one senate? Do we still have three separate heads? We still practice separation?

P: Yes.

T: Initially, they were concerned with the idea to keep branches separate. Laws they wanted passed could go unchecked. Who is the individual that started this? Do you remember? Tom, do you remember?

P: No.

T: Montesquieu. Does that make sense? That's a good name to remember. Turn to the Preamble, Rick. Read the first sentence.

P: (Reading) We the people...

T: (Interrupts) Who's we?

P: People.

T: What are people--slaves, Indians, makers of the Constitution?

P: People of the United States.

T: Did this include slaves and Indians?

P: No.

T: It didn't?

P: No, it included just the people that were citizens of the U.S.

T: Who do you think was included? Who do you have in mind? Carl, do you agree with this?

P: All citizens of the U.S.

T: You buy that, John? At the outset they did have these ideas in mind. Somehow they did come out. Nancy?

P: It would seem to me that...

T: It seems to be a controversial view...all these five things. OK, let's get down to the First Article. What does it deal with, John?

T: Today we are going to discuss the Spanish-American War. First of all, let's briefly review a couple of things. In 1790, what sort of foreign policy did the United States have? What one word characterizes the direct period?

P: Imperialism.

T: No.

P: Isolation.

T: O.K., isolation. It was about the year 1790. You remember the first week, we were talking about our present foreign policy, say, 1960. Bob, what word would we use to characterize this?

P: Nationalism.

T: What would be another word? Don? Allen?

P: Involvement.

T: O.K., involvement. O.K., we can see the United States' involvement, movement toward involvement from a period of isolation. Today, we're going to talk about the period right in here--where the United States moved out of their isolation into involvement. And this is going to be primarily concerned about a little country that is in the news today. What country am I referring to? Fred?

P: Viet Nam.

T: No.

P: Cuba.

T: Pardon?

P: Cuba.

T: O.K., Cuba. Why is Cuba important today? I mean, you hear a lot about Cuba in the news. Is there any particular reason why it is important today? Steve?

P: Through Communist influence....

T: O.K., why would that be important?

P: They are representing a threat to us. I mean the Communists.

T: Why would this be important to the United States? Any particular reason?

P: Well, for defense reasons.

T: O.K., we might say defensive, for defensive reasons. Do you think it would be more important now or more important in say 1898?

P: I think it is more important now.

T: Why?

P: Well, because then it was a threat whereas it has been a unique thing. Now there are more countries.

American History, Eleventh Grade

T: O.K., let's start looking at this period of about the--just the turn of century, start to discuss some of the ideas. About this time there was a growing feeling in America. We mentioned it before. How would we describe the idea of expanding? Linda? Allen?

P: Manifest destiny.

T: O.K., now we have a different type of manifest destiny. Many countries had had this before, but now its going to be on a global scale. What term would describe this? Mike, do you have an idea? It was mentioned earlier. Steve? Mike?

P: Imperialism, or nationalism.

T: What was the first one?

P: Imperialism.

T: O.K., imperialism. In the United States, there was a growing feeling of imperialism. Why would the United States have this sort of feeling at this time? Anne? Any ideas? What was going on in the United States just after the Civil War?

P: Reconstruction.

T: O.K., reconstruction. What else was happening? Sometimes it's termed revolution. Mr. Bryson has referred to it. It is not really a revolution but it's a transition. What would we describe this as? Remember? Sammy? What would we describe this transition after the Civil War? We talked earlier about it. Dwayne? You remember? Fred?

P: Industrial revolution.

T: O.K., the industrial revolution. Why would this be significant to the ideas of imperialism? Richard?

P: Well, it reached its peak point of industrialism around 1890. They had need for more and more raw materials that they could use.

T: O.K., let's take down some of these ideas and let's look at these ideas that we described yesterday as underlying causes. O.K., first we have imperialism, then industrial revolution. O.K., now what did we say? How did these two things relate?

P: The industrial revolution needed more and more raw materials. So to get that, they had to go to other underdeveloped countries and use their products or raw materials to create products, and they created empires.

(Partially inaudible)

T: What did they do? What relationships did they try to conform to these other countries?

P: Trade.

T: What?

P: Trade?

T: O.K., did they do anything to these countries themselves?

P: They made colonies.

T: O.K., they made colonies. O.K., for what reason were they having colonies? I believe we mentioned this earlier. As it relates to industrial revolution. Do you remember?

P: Trade.

T: O.K., trade...trade. Trade implies two things. What are these two things? Steve?

P: The colonies' acceptance in mercantilism where they would buy raw materials or secure them cheaply, make products and sell them back to the colonies. That is sheer profit.

T: O.K., then there would be a market. A market and what else?

P: Source of raw materials.

T: O.K., raw materials. Why couldn't they just continue getting these products from the United States? What had happened in the United States to manifest destiny?

P: We had filled our goal coast to coast--secured this entire area. We needed new sources of raw materials. They had raw materials there but they had not been discovered yet. And they also felt we needed prestige.... The colonies felt that that was what we needed to compete with other nations.

T: O.K., the end of the frontier would be one. And what was your second reason, Steve?

P: Prestige. To be in power by world prestige.

T: What was happening at this time that the United States gained prestige, acquiring more esteem? O.K., what was happening on the worldwide scale? What were other countries doing?

P: They were colonizing.

T: O.K., the United States was interested in gaining prestige, what many of the more developed countries in Europe had been doing. So we can label these as underlying causes of the Spanish-American War. Why aren't they the immediate causes? Remember when we were talking about the immediate and underlying causes? Martin, do you remember how we defined these two words?

P: Immediate causes were the causes that were right then.

T: O.K., good.

P: The underlying causes were building up the unrest and built up to the fighting between countries.

ADVANCED PLACEMENT ENGLISH, TWELFTH GRADE

T: Today we are going to continue our discussion of Heart of Darkness, and its relation to modern literature. We are going to examine the elements of the Heart of Darkness, and to see how we arrive at the theme of the story. This will help you in going on to college. We will go through each one of the elements and see how they relate. We will start out with the title. What is the title? You should know that much.

P: Heart of Darkness.

T: What do you think Heart of Darkness means? Why did Conrad use this?

P: Darkness to me would suggest that it would be evil. There is always evil. The jungle is always dark. The heart of it.

T: All this, then, can refer to the Congo area.

P: It might also refer to ignorance or the lack of knowledge.

T: Knowledge of what? Good and evil and the nature of life. Darkness meaning on one level Africa, and on another level, the lack of knowledge. What would heart mean?

P: The heart is the center.

T: That is right, the center. The center is good for heart.

P: I think of the heart as the whole of life--that heart of the individual.

T: The center and the heart of man and the darkness and the unknown--let's see how these relate to the other elements. The next item we are going to discuss is the setting. What is the setting? First of all in the Heart of Darkness, where does it begin and then trace it through.

P: The Congo.

T: Where does it begin?

P: Heart of Darkness begins in Europe, then to Africa and the Congo, to Kurtz and back.

T: And then back. Why did he take this trip? What is the significance of the change in setting from Europe, to Africa, to the Congo? Now what could this mean?

P: Europe is a place of knowledge and Africa is a place of ignorance--going from a place of knowledge to a place of darkness.

T: From the known to the unknown.

P: It could also mean going from the outside of the physical man to the inside.

T: That is really good. I think we can tie this in with the plot and relate it to the nature of the Heart of Darkness. In just a moment we will discuss this change of setting from Europe to Africa. What is the basic plot of Heart of Darkness?

P: The trip.

T: Alright, the trip. It goes from Europe to Africa. It follows the setting. What does this trip mean and what is the significance of it?

P: Search for the meaning of life.

T: The trip into the Heart of Darkness is the search for the unknown--relating to the setting and to the title itself. From the setting we move into tone. What is the tone? What is tone?

P: A rather dark and mysterious setting--things all around.

T: First, what is tone, not just in Heart of Darkness?

P: Atmosphere around which the story is built.

T: Alright, the quality and air about it--the way it makes us feel. How does the Heart of Darkness make us feel?

P: It is scary and dark all over. Things that aren't pleasant to anybody. A waste of materials. Evil of the natives and whites.

T: A sense of waste. Do we have any other feelings?

P: A feeling of frustration.

T: That is right. When do you most feel this frustration?

P: Well, mixed with pity. When he came to the forest and see the Negroes under the trees dying.

T: Not much he can do. Do you also feel this when the rivets don't come? Some others are fear, anger--toward the manager. Alright now, we can move right into the characters themselves. Who is the first character? Marlow. What is Marlow like? Do you like him or do you know anything about him?

P: He is intelligent and always searching for something to learn. He uses his intelligence to perceive.

T: That is good. He is a sensitive man. What else do you think about Marlow or feel about Marlow?

P: I think he is also aware of the different reactions of people around him and tries to decipher his reactions to these.

T: Good, and I also want to remind you that it is Marlow who is telling this story. He is the one who took the trip and he is telling the story. It is Marlow who is experiencing the change in the story. Let's go on to the manager. Do you like the manager?

P: He seems kind of selfish. The only reason he is there is to make money, and to get the higher position.

T: He sort of represents the company and image of getting ahead in the world.

P: As an individual he is petty. Everything he tries to achieve isn't worth achieving.

T: Good, in modern literature this same type of man comes up quite a bit. They call it circumscribed imagination.

P: I think that all his values are materialistic--how to gain whatever he can--material value.

T: Good, this relates to this circumscribed imagination. Why is Marlow in Africa?

P: Only because he wants to make money.

T: What about Marlow?

P: Because he wanted to have the experience of Africa and is actually interested in this.

T: Good. What is Mr. Kurtz in Africa? Does he like Africa? Do you think so?

P: He seems attracted to it. There are times he wants to leave but can't.

T: Something compelling and holding him and what is it?

P: He is a man that likes to have someone lesser look up to him.

T: His reason then is this for staying?

P: I agree with her because at the end of the story he was said to be a leader of an extremist group.

T: So he was compelled to stay there because of his inner needs or something that kept him there--his desire to be worshipped.

P: I have a question--Even though I agree with this view-point. Kurtz attracted men in Africa--even if still in Europe, wouldn't people be attracted to him?

P: More intelligent people in Europe and less ones in Africa.

T: But still this comment was made not just in the context of Africa but also people with whom...hold respect for him, not just ignorant people.

P: It wasn't just ignorant people he attracted, because he attracted Marlow. An affinity--both looked into themselves and understood what was inside them. Kurtz is like Oedipus because he affiliated himself and found out what kind of person he was--hollow inside, no strength, so he needed a place like Africa for self-esteem and mutual respect.

T: So in Africa he had this self-discover and Marlow also did? Now what do you think is the basic difference between Marlow and Mr. Kurtz? Do you think they discovered something about themselves and about the universe too or just about themselves?

STEP 20

PURPOSE

To provide an opportunity for trainee self-evaluation of performance in the program.

ACTIVITIES	OBJECTIVES
Practicum: 15 minutes	The trainees will:
Administer Trainee Self-Evaluation Exercise I, page 151	1. Write a personal self-evaluation of performance to date

TRAINER'S INFORMATION

The trainer should allow about 15 minutes hear the end of the practicum session for the trainees to begin working on the self-evaluation exercise. The content of the exercise is based on Objectives 1, 2, 3, 4 and 10 of the program for the first week. It provides a means for the trainees to individually assess their performance level. The trainer should collect, read and return the completed exercise. Although written comments are optional, it is strongly recommended the trainer conference with those trainees whose performance seems to be incongruent with their self-evaluation.

Another option is for the trainer to return the self-evaluation exercise and furnish a composite of the group ratings with which the individual may compare his own ratings.

TRAINEE SELF-EVALUATION EXERCISE I

I. In each of the following areas assess your own understanding and skill at this point in the program. A rating scale of 1-4 is provided. Circle the number which in your judgment best indicates your present level of performance.

Rating Scale:

4 My present performance level is HIGH
3 My present performance level is GOOD
2 My present performance level is ADEQUATE
1 My present performance level is LOW

- -

1 2 3 4 A. Help the group make decisions openly rather than by default

1 2 3 4 B. Consider all seriously intended contributions of other group members

1 2 3 4 C. Speak only for myself and let others speak for themselves

1 2 3 4 D. Consider contributions of group members as belonging to the group

1 2 3 4 E. Participate in the group in various and complementary ways depending on interest in the task, available information and the behavior of other group members

1 2 3 4 F. Shift easily from content to process in order to find causes if group is having trouble getting work done

1 2 3 4 G. Look upon behavior which hinders group process as a group problem, rather than a "problem member"

1 2 3 4 H. Paraphrase to clarify statements of others

1 2 3 4 I. Perform perception checks to determine feelings of others

1 2 3 4 J. Describe behavior without accusing or imputing motives

1 2 3 4 K. Describe feelings openly and directly rather than expressing them indirectly

1 2 3 4 L. Deal with the here and now in interpersonal relationships

1 2 3 4 M. Demonstrate responses which have a freeing effect interpersonally

1 2 3 4 N. Demonstrate predictable behavior as an element of trust building

1 2 3 4 O. Confront conflict as a challenge rather than a threat, in taking risks to build a higher degree of trust

1 2 3 4 P. Demonstrate internalized learning (as opposed to compliance and identification) as processes of behavior change

1 2 3 4 Q. Demonstrate a provisional try attitude (as opposed to unrealistic dependency and counterdependency)

1 2 3 4 R. Receive feedback on own performance and plan alternative actions

Trainee Self-Evaluation Exercise I

II. Identify one behavior which you would like to change. Try to describe below the ways you plan to alter and/or strengthen this behavior as the program continues. Are there ways the trainer or others in the group might be helpful to you as you try to change this behavior?

STEP 21

PURPOSES

To provide an opportunity for implementing the principle of successive approximation.

To provide an opportunity for conducting a simulated strategy session.

ACTIVITIES

Practicum: 2 hours (approximately)

Provide practice in ordering patterns logically and planning strategy

Successive Approximation, pages 154-158

Use the transcripts from previously analyzed teaching episodes

OBJECTIVES

The trainees will:

1. Demonstrate the planning of a strategy session as based on the analysis of data
2. According to the principle of successive approximation, order logically selected patterns of behavior from a transcript of a teaching episode
3. Analyze patterns of behavior in terms of alternative ways of behaving to achieve the desired effect

TRAINER'S INFORMATION

Begin this step by distributing the handout on Successive Approximation which describes and applies this principle. Read and discuss the handout. Then by using a transcript from a previously analyzed teaching episode, practice applying the principle of successive approximation. The trainees should complete planning a strategy by determining how they would deal with the pattern(s) in a conference. [The trainer may find it necessary to caution the trainees that this is a simulated exercise and in actual practice the priorities for behavior change will depend upon the competencies of the individual teacher and his goals.]

Particularly during this week, and as needed during subsequent weeks, there should be considerable emphasis placed on role playing as a method for practicing the cycle. For example, after the group has prepared for a planning session it will be helpful to role play (with one trainee performing as the helper and another as the teacher) before actually conducting the planning session with the teacher. This procedure will give the trainees practice in predicting the effect of their behavior on that of a teacher.

SUCCESSIVE APPROXIMATION

The principle of successive approximation involves prioritizing desired changes in performance. Such priorities can be set by describing the terminal behavior specifically and analyzing it in terms of the steps that make up the total behavior change. It means finding the logic in performance that indicates an order in which the desired changes might be accomplished. The priorities are not likely to be the same in every situation since it depends on the patterns of behavior, the classroom objectives, the complexity of the change and the teacher's capability of making the change.

For example, suppose a teacher is concerned with the participation of students in his class. Specifically, his goal is to increase the extent of pupil-to-pupil verbal interaction in class discussions. The patterns of behavior identified in analysis of the verbatim transcript include the following, among others:

More teacher talk than pupil talk

Teacher-pupil-teacher interaction

Teacher phrases questions which provide clues for answering

Teacher repeats and expands pupil answers

Teacher calls on pupils by name to designate respondent

Teacher asks specific, memory-recall questions

Pupils give responses of one to five words

In effect, all of these patterns work against the teacher's goal of pupil-to-pupil interaction. The pattern of teacher-pupil-teacher interaction is partially a result of the other six patterns. It is only partially a result because there may be other circumstances which also could be effecting the pattern of teacher-pupil-teacher interaction. These may include the teacher's criticism of pupils, encouragement of compliant behavior, harshness in dealing with pupil misconduct and so on. Like the teacher-pupil-teacher pattern of interaction, these conditions are at varying levels of complexity and their interrelatedness have some bearing on the total classroom climate. If these other conditions do exist, the problem is much more complex.

Successive Approximation

Assume, for purposes of illustration, the teacher's goal of pupil-to-pupil interaction is being impeded primarily by the patterns of behavior identified. Since the teacher cannot realistically work on all the patterns at once, the first task when applying the principle of successive approximation is to select a pattern which the teacher might change in order to make progress toward his goal of pupil-to-pupil interaction.

Select one pattern from the list given which the teacher might work on as a starting point toward the goal of pupil-to-pupil interaction. Write the pattern in the space below.

_____

_____

Why did you select this pattern of behavior? Write your response in the space below, THEN TURN TO THE BACK OF THIS PAGE TO CHECK YOUR RESPONSE.

_____

_____

Following the selection of a pattern of behavior it becomes a matter of identifying alternative behaviors which the teacher can use to produce the desired effect. In this case the teacher wants to increase the extent of pupil-to-pupil verbal interaction. Using the pattern of the teacher asking specific, memory-recall questions, what are some alternative thought-level questions the teacher might employ? Write your alternatives in the space below, (then check them with those suggested on the back of this page).

_____

_____

Possible Response

The more logical choice as a starting point is the pattern of the teacher asking specific, memory-recall questions. Until the teacher begins asking questions which require higher levels of thought and longer responses it is doubtful he can get more pupil talk and interaction. However, the teacher may not be able to implement any change in this area unless he is, or until he becomes, knowledgeable in questioning strategies which promote different levels of thinking. If he is not knowledgeable in questioning strategies the supervisor should help him become so.

Other possible choices may be easier to change. The patterns involve: a) Teacher phrases questions which provide clues for answering; b) Teacher repeats and expands pupil answers; c) Teacher calls on pupils by name to designate the respondent. Any one of these patterns would be a place to start provided the teacher is not sufficiently prepared to deal with the pattern of asking specific, memory-recall questions.

The patterns of more teacher talk than pupil talk, teacher-pupil-teacher interaction and pupils give one-to-five word responses are not logical choices since they are in one way or another the result or effect produced by the other patterns of behavior.

RETURN TO PAGE 155 AND CONTINUE READING

Possible Response

Listed below are two models which contain alternative thought-level type questions.

Model One:

Thought Level Questions
- Cognitive-Memory
- Convergent
- Divergent
- Evaluative

Model Two:

Thought Level Questions
- Memory
- Translation
- Interpretation
- Application
- Analysis
- Synthesis
- Evaluation

CONTINUE READING ON PAGE 157

Successive Approximation

The alternative choices of patterns of behavior which may provide a possible focus for the conference are: a) Teacher phrases questions which provide clues for answering; b) Teacher repeats and expands pupil answers; c) Teacher calls on pupils by name to designate respondent. Select one of these patterns and in the space below write possible alternative behaviors the teacher might employ to increase pupil talk and the extent of pupil-to-pupil verbal interaction. When you have finished turn to page 158 and check your alternatives with those suggested there.

Application of the principle of successive approximation is little more than looking at the patterns of behavior in relation to the teacher's objective, attempting to find out how they fit together logically and then prioritizing them in a way which can lead to systematic improvement of performance. While this is a process the supervisor engages in, it also involves the teacher at the conference level if he is going to understand how his performance affects the achievement of objectives.

In summary, the teacher's capability for change is subject to gaining awareness of his teaching behavior, understanding the consequences of his actions and finally accepting a need for changing his behavior. For improvement to occur the direction of change must be explicit and feasible; this necessitates knowledge of alternative behaviors which the teacher can try provisionally.

Possible Response

Pattern: Teacher phrases questions which provide clues for answering

Possible Alternatives:
1. Phrase open-ended questions without giving clues
2. Ask questions which have more than one right answer

Pattern: Teacher repeats and expands pupil answers

Possible Alternatives:
1. Do not repeat pupil response
2. Ask pupil to paraphrase another pupil's response
3. Ask pupils if they have anything to add to another pupil's response
4. Remain silent after a pupil's response allowing other pupils to respond
5. Follow pupil response by asking another question

Pattern: Teacher calls on pupils by name to designate respondent

Possible Alternatives:
1. Ask questions without designating respondent
2. Indicate nonverbally who may respond next

RETURN TO PAGE 157 AND CONTINUE READING

STEP 22

PURPOSES

To provide an opportunity for analyzing and evaluating a conference.

To begin developing skill in critiquing a conference.

ACTIVITIES

Practicum: 2 hours (approximately)

Provide practice in analyzing and critiquing a conference

Use transcripts of teaching episode and a conference

Teaching Transcript: United States History, Eleventh Grade, pages 160-162

Conference Transcript, pages 163-169

OBJECTIVES

The trainees will:

1. Analyze a transcript of a teaching episode for patterns of behavior
2. Determine those patterns they would deal with in the conference
3. Interpret the conference by comparing their analysis and strategy with the transcript of the conference

TRAINER'S INFORMATION

As a suggested starting point, the trainer can have the trainees analyze the transcript of the teaching episode for patterns of behavior. They should determine those pattern(s) they would deal with in the conference. Then they can read the Conference Transcript and compare it with their own analyses and strategies.

The Conference Transcript has been recorded from a conference conducted by a trainee in another training program of this kind. It provides ample data for analysis and illustrates a level of performance. The conference is not intended to be an exemplary model but, rather, just a case for analysis.

TEACHING TRANSCRIPT:

U. S. HISTORY, ELEVENTH GRADE

T: Let's make two straight lines. OK, you fellas move down here. ...Cynthia, I want you to take charge of this side. Gary, you're in charge of this side.... You've read Chapter 22. Four of you will take this section and each student will write five questions and answers on one page.

P_1: Everyone has to have five?

T: Everyone has to have five. Yes, Larry?

P_2: What do we do with the answers?

T: You'll put five questions on one page, and questions and answers on one page. OK, Gary, divide your group up into... OK get together into your groups....

P: OK

P: OK

P: OK

P: How many sections are there?

T: After you get your assignment, let me tell you about a few more things. You'll be handing your questions in so they'll be mixed up, so you will get some from the other side and some from your own. Know your answers because you may be called upon to give the correct answer. Another thing, if the other side can't answer it, it will come back to your side. Do you all have your assignment?

P: Assignment from yesterday?

T: Yes, ...everyone will have to answer straight down the line...

P: ...Here.

T: Alright, ...someone will keep track. They'll be the tally. Just a second...

P_1: We are studying just one section?

T: You were supposed to have read Chapter 22, the whole chapter.

P_1: I didn't get it all done.

T: You've got 20 minutes. ...make sure questions are hard enough so that they can't answer but easy enough so you can answer. You have true/false questions...you must be able to explain why it is true or false.

(Pupils look into their books, writing on paper)

P: Miss Smith, will you tell me what to do?

T: Do you understand what to do?

(Sees pupil)

P: Too much noise teach, you'll have to crack down.

(Pupils laugh)

Teaching Transcript:
U.S. History, Eleventh Grade

(Teacher turns to left side for direction giving)

P: Sh- don't be so noisy.

P: OK, you guys, cool it. Don't be so noisy.

P: Do they have to be true/false questions?

T: Yes, let's be quiet.

P: I can't realize what I'm doing....I'm so nervous. I can't realize what I'm doing.

T: Questions on one sheet; answers on other.

(Student Teacher help on one side. Red-haired pupil raises hand, then puts down and looks at book. Teacher goes to the left side to answer a girl's question.)

P: Why don't we go into Section One and forget it?

P: How many can read?

P: Two generations.

P: Two generations?

(Pupil laughter)

(Silence)

(Pupils write on paper, and look in books while teacher sits on desk watching groups)

(Pupil raises hand)

(Teacher goes over to help, answers question, walks to board and writes:

5 Questions

Paper I: Answer + Question
II: Question)

(Pupil asks question and teacher helps pupil)

P: I agree.

P: That's right?

P: Huh- uh - answer on other paper.

P: You're supposed to...

P: That's right - you're supposed to...

P: Oh!

P: Get it now? Does it sink through?

P: I get it now. ...Oh.

(Whistle blows outside of class)

P: Is that a ...?

P_4: Sh!

(Looks at girls in back of him)

P_4: Sh!

Teaching Transcript:
U.S. History, Eleventh Grade

(Teacher helps on right side. A pupil walks up to the desk, gets paper, and takes seat. Pupils discuss on left side)

P_1: Can I have another piece of paper?

(Teacher gets paper)

P_1: Danka.

(Students laugh)

P_1: Are we suppose to put our name on those?

T: It doesn't really make any difference....

P_3: How do you find these?

P_1: Easy - just look at the topic sentence of each paragraph.

P_3: Huh?

P_1: Look at the topic sentence of each paragraph.

(Teacher is helping pupil on left side)

P: Miss Smith, I'm finished.

T: Are you? Study that chapter well.

P: I know, I just did it.

T: Alright...

(to other pupil, answer a question. T. helps student on right hand side)

(Walking around class)

T: You have tough questions.

(T. smiles)

P_1: ...how's that, four questions refer to page one.

(T. talks to pupil on left, right sides)

T: Are you finished, Bob?

(Pounding in hall begins. Pupils mumble. Teacher goes to desk, sorting papers.)

T: Are you about finished class?

(ALL): No.

(Laugh)

(T. walking about, stopped, look at all)

T: You're doing a great job! OK, let's start handing them in.

P: No.

P: Wait.

T: You have five minutes.

P: Did you read the questions?

T: No, are they good ones?

P: That's what I want to know...

T: Some of you are doing a great job. ...getting good questions. I'll give you five more minutes.

P: Oh, no.

P: Let's go all the way until 12 o'clock.

CONFERENCE TRANSCRIPT

Supervisor: Now, I was wondering, after...you had a chance to read that (teaching transcript) didn't you?

Teacher: Um hum, right.

S: Do you have any comments on it?

T: Other than the fact that I really enjoyed going back and looking at this...it's amazing what goes on that you don't notice in a classroom.

S: Could you give me an example?

T: Oh, some of these things that they were saying, like the whistle blowing outside the class, and I never heard that, and I felt the students, some of their responses...

S: Then things seem to stand out as you are going over it.

T: They don't seem to catch on to directions very easily. I remember yesterday, yesterday, when they'd hand me those papers, half of them I had to hand back and say, 'Put the answers on it or put the questions on it.' It was something they hadn't done and it was written on the board and I told them in class. I just didn't make it clear, I guess you know.

S: Okay. Now you feel that you didn't make it clear enough, is this what you mean?

T: Um hum. I feel that it wasn't clear enough because they didn't do it.

S: Could there be any, do you have anything that you feel would clarify this? In other words, things that you might do whereby the students would be able to follow your directions.

T: Like in yesterday's situation.

S: Or in any situation.

T: Well, today, well, they followed directions perfectly today. I put on paper, 'Write on two of the following,' and I gave them five questions.

S: So you put it on a piece of paper that you gave them.

T: Yes, right on to a column. I didn't put it on the board. I didn't put it on anywhere, I handed it out. They wrote on two of the following. And that took care of it, and they handed them in and that was the end. Oh, once or twice somebody would ask me, um, 'Do we have to write on two of these, does number five count as two or does it count as one,' and things like that just to clarify it for themselves. We went over the questions in class. We read each one and so I thought they wouldn't come up and ask me what it meant. I tried at that time to point out to them what the questions meant. They had it right in front of them.

S: You were very, very specific about this though.

Conference Transcript

T: I had to be today, because yesterday I just felt that they couldn't understand what I was talking about. And so I thought today for sure it's going to be quieter and it's just going to run more like clockwork than it did like yesterday when it just.... They ran it themselves.

S: Now, you have indicated one way here that you can give more explicit directions then, would be to write the direction. You indicated this. Would there by an other way?

T: Well, it seems to me that if I write it on the board, it should be as good as written on the paper in front of them and I can't understand why it isn't.

S: Do you do anything once you have it on the board? Do you bring their attention to this?

T: I didn't yesterday. Usually we do. You know, when we write an assignment, we give them the assignment and write it on the board at the same time. It doesn't always work, but it...usually they write it down on a piece of paper then.

S: When do you give them the assignment?

T: Ahuh, when we say, 'Okay, the assignment for tomorrow is to open your books to page 282,' and we give them, say, numbers 3 and 5, and usually they write them down ....Often, this last week we've been checking on who hasn't been handing in their assignment, and we go back and they don't remember what the assignment is and they were there. But they just didn't write it down.

S: I wonder in...as you looked over this material that we have given to you, would there have been any way in which you would, as you looked at this, do you see any ways that you would alter this? In other words, so they would have these directions more clear in their minds.

T: Perhaps in the beginning I'd just, ah, ah, 'Let's have you take this down on a piece of paper,' ah, but then it was supposed to be something that was more fun than something that seemed like a dictatorship or something. I wanted them to enjoy it and something that they would be kind of on their own because they were supposed to be writing the questions themselves and they were supposed to be running this themselves.

S: Yes... But you had definite directions that you wanted them to follow.

T: Yes...and I changed them, but they were demonstrations in the first place.

S: I wonder, did you think as you went over this, probably if you had given the students the direction... For instance, you read here in the first one, 'Let's make two straight lines,' you notice there, 'Okay, you fellows move down there. Cynthia, I want you to take charge of this side. Gary, you are in charge of this side. You have read Chapter 22, four of you

will take this section and each student will write five questions and answers on one page.' Now, I wonder as you went through this, if probably you had given them, before you told them to move at all, that probably when they were sitting in their assigned seats, that maybe, then, you had given them the directions before they had moved at all.

T: I thought about doing that, I was going to give them the assignment, but then I thought, well, in their own teams they will want to decide who is going to work on what section. There were four sections. And I thought if I divide them into groups then I'd give group instruction rather than whole class instructions. You know, so that they could understand it better, because they do have a problem understanding assignments.

S: That's why I wondered if probably...

T: That's why I had to go back down here and give group instructions again and individual instructions.

S: Yes, this is the thing that seems to stand out here doesn't it?

T: Yes. If Ed had...Mr. Willis said if I'd given em two more instructions even, everything would have gone a lot more smoother, but I just...I gave them so few instructions, just enough so that they could get it done. And that wasn't even enough. They couldn't follow the ones I gave.

S: You told me earlier this morning that you cut off because it started getting into an argument.

T: Right.

S: And do you feel that this was because of the directions?

T: I don't know. If perhaps they'd even on the directions - they got real argumentative about every little point. And one side of the class, it was unfortunate, couldn't answer the questions. The other side just were too tough for them. And so they just kept missing every one and they thought that my interpretation of the answer was wrong, because I favored this side of the class. And when that started happening I cut it off, because....

S: I just ah...getting back now, one of the things we have indicated here, that if you had given the directions before they had moved to their rows where they were sitting, maybe this would have eliminated some things.

T: I think it would, yes.

S: You have also mentioned that you could write directions on the board or convey written directions. In other words, these were on the duplicated pages. Would there by any other directions that you could give, any other ways in which to give directions where your students wouldn't have to go through...like here, for instance, you gave the directions. Then, the student asks you again, 'Everyone has to

have five?' and you said, 'everyone has to have five, yes, Larry.' And again the student, 'What do we do with the answers?' and ah...I wonder on this, if there would have been some way, as you gave these directions probably, to ask the students to give you an understanding that they know what you mean. Would there by any way that you could check this?

T: Well, sometimes you ask them, 'Now, do you all understand the directions?' and they say, 'Yes.' You know, a couple people say, 'yes,' so then nobody raises their hands and says, 'no.' And they go on doing what they want to do. All of the sudden, I get ten hands and I gotta go around to them, so I don't...oral directions, I'm beginning to doubt whether they always work. Maybe it's just the particular class or maybe it's just that the directions were so complicated yesterday. Maybe, even, today I could have just given it to them orally and they would have been alright, but yesterday it wasn't.

S: How about some way to check to see whether they understood. Like you said, one or two hands come up. Would there by any way you could ask the student, 'Are you sure you understand?' Would there by anything that you might ask the student?

T: Well, yesterday, I had a funny experience. Dennis, (I don't know if you know him, he's really quite really slow and he usually sleeps in class.) and he was sitting there and he didn't have a thing down on his paper, nothing at all, and everybody else had three or four questions and answers already. And I went over, and I said, 'Dennis, how are you doing?' And he said, 'Fine,' and I said, 'Do you need some help?' and he said, 'No.' He didn't have a thing. Finally, he ended up with one question on his paper. But he did need some help, but I didn't know what to do. I didn't know, you know. Like, yes, you do need some help, you know? And sometimes, I feel that way in class. If you say, 'Do you all understand?' And they all agree that they understand. And then, you start asking them and they are going to think that you don't trust them, perhaps. Or, that you don't believe that they do.

S: Now this assignment, this was the first time you tried this, wasn't it?

T: Yes, I never, yes....

S: I mean you didn't try this before, and the students probably had never experienced this before. Do you think it would have helped if you had asked the students, while they were still sitting in their regular seats, to open their books to any section in that chapter that you were dealing with and to go to a specific spot and have all the students look at that one spot. And then, 'Let's look at this and let's write a question.'

T: A huh, that probably would have, a huh, and then it could have also stated what kind of question I wanted. They never

did get that straight. They thought my objective was to get them enthused, that it wasn't really to write questions, and yet, I wanted them to be able to write good questions. Jose thought he had such good questions. He came up after class and got them back and said, 'They were good, weren't they?' And then he read them to Mr._____, and Mr._____ told him how good they were and he was really proud of his questions. I asked him today, I said, 'Did you think you learned anything yesterday?' and he says, 'Well,' he says, 'I really know those....' or something about knowing those five questions. He was real proud of them, and he told me the dates all over again today and what he had learned. And...so, he did learn something.

S: Yes, these were some of the things that I was, I thought, you know, probably, it would have operated more smoothly and also there would have been less confusion....

T: Um hum, I think if we had them write one sample question. I guess you just have to trust the fact that they will do it. Some of them, if they know they don't have to hand it in, they don't do it. I tell them to take notes, 'Now, come on, and take notes because this will be really important for the test,' and the first thing they will ask is, 'Do we have to hand this in?' And I'll say, 'No, it's just for your own good.' Five people take notes and 20 will take nothing. If they really learned it, I wouldn't mind, because sometimes it's important for them to get these down.

S: Did you have just a ____ then as a result of yesterday? Ah, you felt that there was a lack of understanding on what they were supposed to do. Did you anticipate that today?

T: Yes, that's why I did it this way today.

S: What did you do that was different? I mean you felt that today was successful, yesterday was not, what did you do differently?

T: Well, for one thing, I had them mimeographed off already. And I said, 'Write on two of the following,' and had the questions right underneath it, right at the top. And I handed all those out before I said anything at all. Just said, 'Close your books now,' and then we went through and I said, I read the whole thing right from the beginning, 'Write on two of the following,' and then I read the questions out loud to them.... Of course, it was a simpler assignment today, I mean it wasn't really too tough, but they understood right away. Except for the very few, you know, that I had to go around and explain a little bit to.

S: You were conscious of doing this.

T: Yesterday, oh yes, I realized yesterday they weren't clear at all on what we were doing.

S: Actually, then, what you did in a part of your planning was to have the directions....

Conference Transcript

T: For today, in fact, that was the planning...was for one thing to have it well organized so it would go smoothly. I don't ever know what they are going to talk about when we just have a discussion. They like to get off the subject. But today, as far as them writing a paper, it went real well.

S: How do you feel about this conference now?

T: Today, fine, I feel like I gained from yesterday's failures, and also your suggestions today. I think I can use those. I think, I'd never thought about them opening a book, but I think that's a good idea.

S: What other things would you try now as a result of what we've talked about?

T: I think I would try even orally again, I'm sure I would, and yet have it more clear.

S: Do you think I'm trying to lead you to a certain, ah...like the rat that's trying to go through the maze for the keys? And I've the maze all cut up and binded....

T: I might if I didn't see my weakness yesterday...I could see...and that's why today it had to be different than yesterday. It seems like every day for the past three days they've been confused on my instructions, so there was...yesterday it was worse than ever, so it just had to be straightened out.

S: Of these various things that have been mentioned, I have mentioned some and you have mentioned some, what are you going to try? Which of these do you think you will make a conscious effort to try to see whether or not this will work?

T: I'm sure, well, some of these things I've done in the past, you know, like having them mimeographed off and writing it on the board at the same time I assign it. Perhaps, even if I had done that yesterday it might have worked. But I think I will try having them, if I do do the same type of thing, ah, look in their books and answer a question on the section. And perhaps then, I'd ask them, well, 'What kind of question do you have?'

S: Would there, would you make any effort to ask the student to summarize the directions that you have given and ascertain whether or not they have got them?

T: I don't know if I would or not.

S: (name), we worked for a long, long time in our group trying to get specific directions, not specific directions, but specific ways that we could help you to write more explicit directions. And maybe if I went over these specific things, other than the ones I have already mentioned, maybe you could understand what I mean by ways to help, because...I have mentioned already to give the directions

before you have the students move, if it's going to be an activity where they are going to group. I mentioned this already, the value of dittoing the directions which you have indicated.

T: That's really great...

S: Writing the directions on the board. Or sometime if you are using a track and overhead projector, you might write these on the transparency. You can use the prepared transparency or you can get the sheets of acetate and you can write your directions on there and you can just put them on the overhead and flip it on. This is another technique.

T: The thing about yesterday, there were so many directions. I mean they had to be divided and they had to divide themselves and they had to write these questions and questions and answers, and I think the looking in the book would have accomplished that better than any of the other ways. Because putting it orally it confuses, even written they don't, there is different meaning that can be taken for a written word even if you go over it with them in class.

S: You mean you show them how to do it by doing it yourself in front of the whole group, demonstrating?

T: No, well, I thought the one where they look in the book and they all write a question from one particular section or one paragraph, even. Just to give them an idea of how they can write questions or what type they can ask, would have been the most explicit. Because, they would have experienced before they even had to go write the other five. And they have to have some kind of experience to build on, and even if they just gained it that very minute, it seems like they would have been better off.

S: Then, in order to check for clarity, I think we talked about this today too, and I am going over it because I am mostly interested in seeing whether or not you can use these in your teaching. If you want to determine whether a student understands something, you might ask a student to paraphrase. In other words, to tell it to you in their words. You have given a direction and you might ask someone to tell you what this meant.

(conference continues)

STEP 23

PURPOSES

To provide an opportunity for conducting a simulated conference.

To provide an opportunity for the trainee playing the role of the helper (supervisor) to receive feedback on his performance.

ACTIVITIES

Practicum: 2 hours (approxmimately)

Exercise to provide practice in conducting a conference

Use teaching episode transcripts:

Social Studies, Fourth Grade, pages 171-173
English, Eleventh Grade, pages 174-176

OBJECTIVES

The trainees will:

1. Demonstrate the conduct of a conference through role playing
2. Give direct feedback to the group member who played the role of supervisor

TRAINER'S INFORMATION

For this exercise, the trainee playing the role of the teacher should not be present during the analysis and strategy session. However, he must be given a copy of the transcript so he can study and be thoroughly familiar with the teaching episode. Two transcripts have been provided, so use the transcript more appropriate to the grade level of the group.

The conference should be critiqued by the trainees after the role-playing exercise has been completed.

T: Now, this is what we are going to do this morning. I'm going to show you one method of taking notes from a book, putting down in a few words, so that later on you can take those few words and write in your own words what you want to say.

P: Can't you abbreviate?

T: You can abbreviate, yes. How many of you have taken or made a book report and found that the only way you could do it was to write every word in the book? And then when you got through it was not just your words, but it was the book's words and very difficult for you to understand or to remember. Now in the weeks ahead, between now and the time school is out, we're going to be writing some book reports, so we want you to get acquainted with some of these methods are here for us to work with. So I want each of you to take out a piece of paper, and I'm going to put on the board a sentence here and I want you to look at it - to read it - and then I want you to put down in as few words as possible....

(Class all talks at once.)

T: Yea, that isn't the plainest, but that Ezra - E Z R A (spells out name) Ezra Meeker.

P: You are in my way.

T: I'm in you way. Alright you are going to have to look around me somehow. But now if you were....this first sentence, if you wanted to write down on your paper something that would call your attention to this phrase: "One of the pioneers had traveled the Oregon Trail in 1852 was Ezra Meeker," what might you put down on your paper?

P: Um, just how do you mean by my paper? How can...?

T: Yes, I want something on your paper.

(Class all talks at once.)

T: Alright, Ken.

P: Did you say Ezra Meeker traveled the Oregon Trail in 1852?

T: What would be the first thing we would put down on your book? Ken?

P: Your name.

T: Yes, but beside your name. Alright you have your name down and you're reading a book - first paragraph, what is the first thing you would put down?

P: 1.

T: Alright what would you put against question 1.?

(Class all talks at once.)

T: But that's as many words as there is, is it not?

P: ...1852....

P: 1852 Ezra Meeker.

T: Now, some of you haven't spoken yet.

P: You see um...Ezra Meeker was on the Oregon Trail in 1852.

P: Ezra Meeker was one of the first pioneers.

T: Kathy.

P: You don't have to write down Ezra Meeker....

T: You say we don't have to write down Ezra Meeker.

P: You know who it is because they tell you and you have it up in the title and you can remember it.

T: Alright, so that is the first thing we do put down.

P: What is his middle name?

(General groans from class in regard to this question.)

T: It didn't say in the report, so we don't put that down. Now if I want to know what is Ezra Meeker?

(Class all answers at once.)

T: Mary.

P: Ezra Meeker.

T: What, what...I can use one word to describe Ezra Meeker as it is in the first....

Pps: PIONEER!

T: Now, pioneer. That one word will bring to our attention that Ezra Meeker is a pioneer.

P: He traveled the Oregon Trail in 1852.

T: Now, he doesn't say he is one of the first or he doesn't say he is the first.

(Class all talks at same time.)

T: But let's not put down... should we put down words that are unimportant?

P: No...he traveled the Oregon Trail in 1852.

P: One pioneer, Ezra....

T: Brian.

P: One of the pioneers traveled the Oregon Trail in 1852.

T: But you see these are too many words and if we had to copy a long report it would wear us out.

(General discussion among pupils.)

P: I forgot his name again.

Pps: Ezra Meeker.

T: We know that Ezra Meeker is a pioneer - what did he do?

P: He traveled the Oregon Trail in 1852.

T: But if we write these words down, "He traveled the Oregon Trail in 1852," those are too many words.

Social Studies, Fourth Grade

(Class all talks at once.)

T: Alright, if you'll keep quiet, I want Betty to tell me what she has written on her paper.

P: Ezra Meeker, pioneer 1852, Oregon Trail.

(General discussion among pupils.)

T: Now, that tells Debby, what? Debby, tell me what this tells you. Now, listen, please.

P: That Ezra Meeker was a pioneer and he traveled in 1852 on the Oregon Trail.

T: Alright, now - 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, words, compared to perhaps twice that many. Alright, now, let's take the look at the next sentence which says, "He wrote the story of his travels in a book called Ox Team Days on the Oregon Trail," now what one word will describe Mr. Meeker?

P: Book.

P: Story....

P: Author.

T: Now, that tells me that he is an author. Now, do you suppose the name of the book is important?

P: Yes, yes...no.

(General yes and no)

T: Now, I suppose...do you think you could put down one word that would give you the whole title of his book, or would it be necessary to write the whole bit down?

(General discussion among pupils.)

T: Now, what could I do to indicate that the words Ox Team Days on the Oregon Trail is something different than just words?

P: It is just a story.

T: Then how do I indicate it so I know when I look at it that it is a book?

P: You put those little things....

P: Well, it says he is an author from the Oregon Trail.

T: Some of you are talking again and again without being asked and I want some of the rest of you to also answer.

P: Quotation marks. Put what he said in quotation marks. Like that. Would that be right?

T: That would be right.

(General talking among pupils.)

T: Now do you see how few words we have on the board compared to what's on the book?

P: Can I copy that down?

T: Yes, copy these things down. Alright, now listen, if you can put it down in fewer words than what is here and still know what it means, then do so. Because I'm going to have you later on take these notes and write a paragraph from them in your own words.

T: Alright now, today let's look at this from a certain, specific standpoint. Now, you remember when I introduced these I said that Aristotle and his poetics wrote... analyzed Oedipus, and then write... analyzing Oedipus and other Sophoclean plays, he wrote his thesis on what a tragedy should be. What a good drawn dramatic tragedy should be. And then, I asked you to look at this from the standpoint that if this is a tragedy, if this is a good tragedy, then what is a tragedy? So I'd like to take a look at it from that standpoint. If this in Oedipus is the paradigm tragedy, then what is tragedy? Let's take a look at it in certain ways. Much of what Aristotle had to talk about had to do with char character. Now if Oedipus is a good example of the tragic hero (he's been written about in many essays) then what is the tragic hero? What is some of the attributes, some of the characteristics of the tragic hero? Ruth Ann.

P: Well he's an all around good guy, but in one thing...I mean like what we were talking about the other day - the tragic fly you know, just one thing, I mean we were discussing whether oh, well there were lots of different....

T: A huh, alright, Betty.

P: What he experiences is a kind of downfall.

T: Alright, he experiences a kind of downfall. What else?

P: He seems to be a character of... like he was a natural born leader, I mean he was not just a normal person...his fault....

T: Alright, some other comments?

P: He seems to be kind of on a line between being believable and not believable.

T: What isn't believable, John?

P: Well, um, the fact that he has all these - all these attributes...and he really hasn't and um sort of....

T: Alright John.

P: Well, he seems to...you know he is trustworthy and brave... but he has just this one downfall of being too rash. It seems like he just falls into....

T: A huh, alright, Terry.

P: And also his one fault other than just...quite a few of the major characters in the book. ...a lot of times their downfall too.

P: I think he seems to be sort of an innocent victim of fate, and especially Oedipus.

T: What do you mean, "innocent?"

P: Well, I can't really think of anything he did that actually deserve ah...prophecy.... I mean he seemed so innocent.

T: Alright, now let's take a look, very carefully, in all of the books that we have read. You have been seeing a change in character, haven't you? Ah--what happens in Oedipus? ...certainly changed, Esther certainly changed. What about Oedipus, what was his change? Wendy?

P: Well, at first he was trying to kind of be the god...change what was going to happen....

T: Alright, Carol.

P: I don't know if he did any good...it seems to me like he was running from it.

T: Running from it. Maybe. Don't you agree, Eddie?

P: ...because I think...change ...happen to him....

T: John.

P: His keeping away from his prophecy is the same as trying to change it.

T: How so?

P: He didn't stand up and fight it, he ran away from it. He was trying to get far enough away so it wouldn't effect him.

(General discussion among pupils.)

P: Well, running away from it is the same as trying to change it, because if you run away from it and it doesn't happen, well, that's changed it because the prophecy didn't come true.

P: I don't think that's what he had in mind, changing it.

P: Well, he just didn't want it to take place.

T: Carol.

P: He seemed to know that no matter how far he went, it would catch up with him, that's why he didn't stop running.

T: Did he, did he...that?

P: No.

(General discussion among pupils.)
--What did he keep running for if....
--He didn't keep running though
--Yeah, but when he heard about the prophecy, he keep right, he kept right - he thought maybe I'd escape it, but he really didn't escape it....

T: Well, why did he run in the first place, what did he - John.

P: I think he started out as a....

(Laughter)

T: Well, what did he gain John?

P: His nose....

(General discussion.)

P: He kept running away because he wanted to change his prophecy. Well, yes, he wanted to change his prophecy, but, maybe, I mean it's kind of natural not to want something like this to come true, because this is an awful thing you know, kill your father and marry your mother. And you could be, well, you know you have to consider both sides.

English, Eleventh Grade

T: Alright, Sherril.

P: If he didn't, um, wasn't afraid of the gods, what they said, and he didn't expect that it might be inevitable, why would he be afraid of it? That's why I think he knew it would come true.

T: Okay, now, we have said many things. It seems to me what we are really saying is that Oedipus, at the beginning, was something. And, at the end he was something else, or else he was more so than the same thing and he changed. Now, what was he at the beginning? Let's talk about it, what kind of character Oedipus was at the beginning? What are the attributes or the--the wretchedness of, ah, Oedipus at the beginning? Kathy.

P: Well, is way, um, a hero type.

T: Alright, why was he a hero?

P: Well, he came and he solved the riddle of the thing and everyone thought he was real nice.

T: Alright, now a hero type, what else? Debby.

P: He was compassionate, because he thought about the people....

T: Alright, compassionate, hero type, thinking about the people, what else? Craig.

P: He was quite sure in himself, but he thought no matter what the problem came up in the city, that he could solve it....

T: Now, what's your reaction to the character feeling like this? What's your reaction if Oedipus (I think this is clearly shown) really thinks that he can solve the problem, does he? What's your reaction to this? Jerry.

P: I think overconfidence in everything, like overconfidence in his relationship with the gods and overconfidence in how he can take care of everything and the people, so everything can come out all right.

T: But why is he overconfident?

P: Well, he was really confident when he realized what he was saying...in helping the people, and yet when he felt that the gods were getting...against him....

T: Then you are saying that his confidence was all confidence through the gods.

P: Yes.

T: Well, ah--Alice.

P: Another thing he thought, so far he had escaped the gods, the prophecy and he felt confident about that too.

T: How so, now how had he done this?

P: Here he was married already and his father wasn't killed and his mother was...they were both still living in the other town as far as he knew.

STEP 24

PURPOSES

To provide the trainees with an opportunity for actual involvement in the planning phase of the cycle.

To begin establishing an effective working relationship with a teacher.

ACTIVITIES

Practicum: 2 hours (approximately)

Begin practicing the cycle of systematic and objective analysis of instruction by preparing for and conducting a planning session

OBJECTIVES

The trainees will:

1. Demonstrate the procedure involved in preparing for and conducting a planning session with a teacher
2. Establish criteria for evaluating the success of the planning session while preparing for it
3. Demonstrate behavior which leads to the establishment of a trust relationship with the teacher
4. Interpret the effect of the planning session in terms of objectives and performance

TRAINER'S INFORMATION

The trainees may want the trainer to demonstrate the first planning session with the teacher. An alternative is for the trainees to role play the upcoming planning session before having one of the trainees actually conduct the session.

In any event, a planning session should be completed during this step, and a time established for observing the teacher in the classroom.

It is important to note that this step represents the first official meeting between the trainees and teacher. The trainees in their role as helper to the teacher should be particularly sensitive to the components of establishing a trust relationship.

See the information on The Interpersonal Effect of Responses for additional information, pages 85-92.

The trainees should establish criteria for evaluation while preparing for the planning session. This is an important step toward providing a base for evaluating the success of their planning session with the teacher.

STEP 25

PURPOSE

To provide a base of information for helping teachers think of effective planning as:

1. Stating objectives in terms of pupil performance

2. Distinguishing between content and process goals

ACTIVITIES

Seminar: 1 1/2 hours
PLANNING

An introduction to the essential components of planning

Planning, pages 179-183

Planning Self-Correcting Exercise, pages 184-185

OBJECTIVES

The trainees will:

1. Identify levels or forms of planning in the planning phase of the cycle

2. Identify performance objectives containing observable pupil behavior, conditions for learning and criteria of acceptable performance

3. Formulate performance objectives

4. Distinguish between content and process goals

TRAINER'S INFORMATION

This seminar is intended to be conducted by each trainer in his regular practicum group. Begin this seminar by distributing the handout on Planning. Let the practicum group decide how it intends to deal with the content of this handout and the accompanying Planning Self-Correcting Exercise. They may want to work through it together or complete it independently.

Experience has shown many teachers plan inadequately. The problems are to get the teacher to be sufficiently specific and to state goals in terms of pupil performance. Without the above two conditions, it is difficult to teach and evaluate.

PLANNING

The planning session is the initial phase in the cycle for systematic and objective analysis of instruction. The supervisor's task is to work toward a relationship in which full information is exchanged, shared understanding is developed and the supervisee's goals are identified as the objectives to be reached through cooperative effort.

The key to effective instructional planning is in being able to formulate performance objectives which include:

1. Observable Pupil Behavior
2. Conditions for Learning
3. Criteria of Acceptable Performance

Objectives, which have these elements, provide specificity about what the teacher intends to accomplish as a means to evaluating his own instructional efficiency.

Observable Pupil Behavior

Traditional objectives include such words as know, understand and appreciate. What do these words mean in terms of behavioral descriptions? To know may mean to identify, to count, to describe, to compute, to select, to write or any number of other observable pupil behaviors. Writing performance objectives requires the use of descriptive terms, usually action words which specify behavior that can be observed. This does not mean a lack of concern for intellectual performance. It does mean, however, that since mental activity is not directly observable some sort of visible behavior should represent the intellectual performance.

For example, suppose the teacher's goal is to have the pupils know something about the writing style of Irving Wallace. The important question is, what is the pupil who knows able to do? There is no single answer to the question because "to know something" is open to many interpretations. However, a possible objective follows which includes observable pupil behavior. Given ten pairs of short prose passages with each pair having one selection by Irving Wallace and one by a different author, the pupils will choose, with at least 80 percent accuracy, the ten selections written by Wallace. The observable behavior is "choose." If the pupils can choose those passages which belong to Wallace, it is one indicator they know something about the writing style of Irving Wallace.

Conditions for Learning

The second element of a performance objective--conditions for learning--requires specifying directions, materials to be used or limitations of time, place and circumstance that will be a part of the classroom setting. It simply means setting forth the conditions under which the desired learning behavior is to occur.

For example, what are the conditions in the performance objective used previously? Given ten pairs of short prose passages with each pair having one selection by Irving Wallace and one by a different author, the pupils will choose, with at least 80 percent accuracy, the ten selections written by Wallace. The conditions for learning are, "Given ten pairs of short prose passages with each pair having one selection by Irving Wallace and one by a different author." The statement specified what is needed in order for the pupils to perform the behavior of choosing.

Criteria of Acceptable Performance

The third and last element of a performance objective--criteria of acceptable performance--defines the extent and level of desired performance. It establishes an acceptable minimum standard of achievement which helps the teacher decide whether further instruction is necessary. It also allows pupils to measure their own progress.

For example, in the objective just used the acceptable performance level is "with at least 80 percent accuracy." It makes it clear that if the pupils can choose correctly eight of the ten selections by Wallace they have accomplished the objective for the lesson.

LEVELS OF PLANNING

Various levels or forms of planning are discernible in the planning phase of the cycle. One form of planning occurs just prior to observation, when the teacher presents a written instructional plan which he usually explains to the supervisor (helper). This procedure provides the supervisor with information on what the teacher will be teaching, and the pupils learning, during the lesson. At this level the supervisor does not participate in making the plan but rather receives information about the lesson to be taught. The supervisor's role, through the use of freeing responses, is to solicit information from the teacher on observable pupil behavior, conditions for learning and the criteria of acceptable performance.

Primarily, the supervisor should use the skills of attentive listening, paraphrasing and asking questions relevant to the topic. The supervisor's specific goal at this level of planning is to obtain sufficient information so by the conclusion of the planning session he can verbalize the performance objective(s) of the lesson to the supervisee. At this level of planning the supervisor should be dealing with the question, *what* are you going to teach and not *why* are you teaching it. Although asking why is an appropriate question, it is not relevant to the immediate task of teaching the lesson. The question of why should be asked before the content of the lesson is determined and, therefore, would be more appropriate to ask when implementing the second form of planning described on the next page.

Planning

A second form of planning occurs at a more involved level when the supervisor and supervisee work jointly toward more effective teaching by planning the lesson together. Such planning may take place at the conclusion of a conference or in a separate planning session. However, if the supervisee and supervisor plan the lesson jointly, it should be done with sufficient lead time so the supervisee will have an opportunity to think about the lesson and make final preparations for its implementation. At this level of planning the supervisee and supervisor should write performance objectives which include the elements of observable pupil behavior, conditions for learning and criteria of acceptable performance.

A third form of planning can occur after the observation in the conference phase of the cycle when the supervisee receives feedback on a pattern(s) of teaching behavior he may wish to change. At this level, the supervisee identifies alternative teaching behaviors for possible implementation to produce different effects. Although this form of planning is related only indirectly to a teacher's instructional plans and the writing of them, it has considerable influence on his performance in carrying out the objectives.

PROCESS GOALS

Stating objectives involves the expression of both content and process goals. Content goals focus on specific data, concepts and generalizations; they are the usual focus for instruction.

Process goals center on certain skills and processes each person must grasp if he is to learn how to learn. They involve skills that enable an individual to become a self-sufficient learner who can continue the learning process as a lifelong, independent activity.

Glen Heathers, in a paper written for the Harvard-Boston Summer Supervision Program, makes an important distinction between content and process goals. This distinction may help in the study of process goals and their significance in instructional planning.

> The point to hold in mind is that, whenever we speak of process goals, we are concerned with the student's increasing his competence in acquiring, interpreting, evaluating or using knowledge. The distinction between acquiring competence in a process (for example, learning how to use a dictionary) and using that competence after it has been acquired is an important one. In the former case we speak of a process goal, i.e., the goal of learning to use the dictionary. In the latter case there are no process goals. The process previously learned, (using a dictionary) is now being put to work in relation to achieving a content goal, (for example, learning the meaning of a word). Often the teacher must check to determine whether a student has

> command of certain processes that are needed in acquiring particular content. When such command is found to be lacking, the goal of learning the processes is appropriate.[1]

Not recognizing this important distinction between content and process goals gives rise to many of the complaints made by teachers when students appear to be going nowhere even though the teacher is doing his utmost to teach. A pupil who cannot read should not be expected to learn history by reading until he has some competence in the processes of reading. A pupil who cannot spell or read will have little success in using a dictionary. A pupil cannot be expected to see the value of using data to make predictations or hypotheses unless he has knowledge about the process and has had practice in the process. There are many examples of processes of learning which are necessary for learning under different conditions.

Listed below are descriptive examples of three process goals which apply to acquiring and using knowledge in any discipline. In essence, they are some of the processes of education since pupils can learn them and can practice their use as a central part of becoming educated.

Tool Skills

Tool skills include the whole array of processes used in reading, listening, writing and speaking. Included also are the skills of computing (adding, subtracting, multiplying, etc.) and the techniques of observing, manipulating and measuring. In the Systematic and Objective Analysis of Instruction Program the skills of paraphrasing, checking perceptions, describing behavior and describing feelings are tool skills which can be learned as ends in themselves and then can be practiced as a means to improving communication with others.

Problem-Solving, Inquiry and Discovery

While these processes of learning may be different technically, they represent the mental activity of thinking. They are productive, systematic ways of confronting and dealing with problems. The processes in part involve being able to identify problems, gather and organize data, formulate and test hypotheses, and draw conclusions as a means to finding solutions. If pupils learn the processes they are better equipped to solve new problems.

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[1] Heathers, Glen, "Learning to Teach in Relation to Process Goals of Education." Harvard-Boston Summer Supervision Program, 1965. Page 4. (mimeo)

Planning

Self-Evaluation

> Self-evaluation is being able to assess one's own progress toward achievement of a task. It entails making explicit the objectives and the criteria for evaluation. When these are known pupils can associate the way they perform with the criteria for success. They can tell by their own actions when they are performing accordingly.

The notion of dealing with process goals and utilizing them as learning outcomes is a complex and challenging part of planning for instruction. If pupils are to become autonomous, independent learners they must have command of these and other processes of learning.

PLANNING

Self-Correcting Exercise

1. In the list of verbs below, circle those action words that would enable the teacher to observe a specific pupil behavior and the learner to demonstrate achievement:

List	Comprehend
Understand	Underline
Compare	Develop Appreciation
Describe	Translate
Differentiate	Is Aware Of
Construct	Order

2. In each of the sections below, select the one statement that most nearly meets the criteria for writing a performance objective:

   Set A

   1. Pupils will learn how to use the card catalog in the library.

   2. Given a list of ten book titles and authors, pupils will arrange them in sequence as they appear in the card catalog, and will locate them on the library shelves making use of the Dewey Decimal classification indicated on the card. Working in pairs, students will compare their order and compile a joint list to be turned in at the end of the period.

   3. Pupils will use the card catalog to locate books in the library.

   Set B

   1. Pupils will solve the division problems on page 16.

   2. Pupils will copy the ten problems in long division that are given on page 16 and, within a 25-minute period, solve at least seven of them correctly, rounding their answers to the nearest whole number.

   3. The pupils will write the spelling words for this week's lesson.

Planning Self-Correcting Exercise

3. Read each of the following objectives to determine how completely the criteria (observable pupil behavior, conditions for learning and criteria of acceptable performance) are met. Write which criteria are included in each.

   1. Pupils will extend their understanding of the additive principle.

   2. Pupils will sharpen their arithmetic skills by solving the set of problems on page 16 of the workbook.

   3. During the last 15 minutes of the period, pupils will practice the multiplication tables, working in pairs, using the flashcards and keeping a list of troublesome combinations.

4. Write a performance objective for the following lesson. The objective should meet the criteria previously defined.

   Subject: Spelling

   Number of words in lesson: 20

   Materials: workbook, pencil, paper, etc. (optional)

Appropriate Responses

1. List
   Compare
   Describe
   Differentiate
   Construct
   Underline
   Translate
   Order

2. Set A (2)
   Set B (2)

3. 1. None of the Criteria Are Met
   2. None, Sufficiently
   3. Conditions

4. Example: Given a list of 20 spelling words, the pupils working independently will memorize within one hour and spell correctly in writing 15 of the words during a spelling test administered orally by the teacher.

STEP 26

PURPOSE

To provide the trainees with an opportunity for actual involvement in the observation phase of the cycle.

ACTIVITIES

Practicum: 45 minutes (approximately)

Continue practice of the cycle by observing a teaching performance and recording verbatim data

OBJECTIVES

The trainees will:

1. Demonstrate the procedure for observing a teaching performance and writing a verbatim transcript of the events

TRAINER'S INFORMATION

All trainees are expected to record as much of the verbal interaction as possible. In this way they can begin to recognize their own limitations in recording all talk and solicit suggestions from each other to increase the amount of data they actually do write.

The length of the observation probably should approximate 30 minutes. It is doubtful the trainees will or should be expected to write continuously for the full period of observation.

If classroom conditions permit, it is recommended the total practicum group be kept intact for this observation and those following activities to the completion of Step 32. This could mean as many as eleven (1:10) will be observing at one time in the classroom. It is, however, more beneficial if all trainees experience the cycle initially as one group.

An alternative, though not preferred, is to subdivide the group into two; one group observing and critiquing the other as the cycle is performed. The "critique subgroup" would not make the classroom observation. The groups can rotate for Steps 29 and 31 to repeat the procedure.

If Step 18 was omitted, the trainer should present information on writing verbatim transcripts at some point during completion of this step.

STEP 27

PURPOSE

To provide the trainees with an opportunity for actual involvement in the analysis and strategy phase of the cycle.

ACTIVITIES

Practicum: 2 hours (approximately)

Continue practicing the cycle by analyzing data from the teaching observation and by planning strategy for a conference

OBJECTIVES

The trainees will:

1. Demonstrate the procedure of analyzing recorded data for patterns of behavior
2. Mark clearly those parts of the recorded data which are evidence for the patterns of behavior identified
3. Demonstrate the procedure of planning strategy

TRAINER'S INFORMATION

Following an observation it is not unusual for trainees to make value judgments about the quality of the teaching performance. This is to be discouraged. The first task of each trainee is to read independently his own written data and identify patterns of behavior, not to evaluate the teaching.

In analyzing their data, it is important the trainees clearly mark the parts which provide evidence of the patterns identified. This evidence is needed as feedback for the teacher.

STEP 28

PURPOSES

To provide the trainees with an opportunity for actual involvement in the conference phase of the cycle.

To provide the trainees with an opportunity for receiving feedback on their performance.

ACTIVITIES

Practicum: 1 1/4 hours (approximately)

Continue practicing the cycle by conducting a conference, followed by a critique

OBJECTIVES

The trainees will:

1. Demonstrate the procedure of conducting a conference based on the preceding planning, observation, analysis and strategy sessions

2. Interpret the effect of the conference and provide feedback to the trainee (supervisor) who conducted it

TRAINER'S INFORMATION

Although all group trainees will probably participate in the analysis and strategy session, it is strongly recommended only one trainee conduct the conference. (However, he may want another trainee to assist him in locating data to illustrate patterns.) His task will be to implement the strategy determined by the group. The remaining trainees should observe the conference and record verbatim data so they can provide feedback to the supervisor on the effect of the conference. If a tape recorder is available it would be appropriate for the trainees to record their conferences and utilize the tape during the critique session. The tape recorder, however, should be used as a supplement to, rather than in lieu of, verbatim data taken by the trainees during a conference.

STEP 29

PURPOSES

To provide an opportunity for the trainees to develop competency in performing the cycle.

To increase the trainees' responsibility for carrying out the cycle.

ACTIVITIES	OBJECTIVES
Practicum: 4 hours	The trainees will:
Continue practice in the cycle of systematic and objective analysis of instruction	1. Demonstrate the procedure involved in preparing for and conducting a planning session as based on the preceding conference (Step 28) 2. Demonstrate the procedure involved in observing a teaching performance and recording verbatim data 3. Demonstrate the procedure involved in analyzing recorded data from the observation for patterns of behavior 4. Demonstrate the procedure involved in planning strategy as based on the preceding planning, observation and analysis sessions 5. Demonstrate the procedure involved in conducting a conference as a culminating activity which reflects the total cycle 6. Interpret the effect of the conference by critiquing the trainee's (supervisor's) performance

STEP 29

TRAINER'S INFORMATION

The trainees should attempt to perform a complete cycle with a teacher during this practicum and each succeeding practicum session. However, the completion of a cycle is not the activity of highest priority at this point in the program. There must be time provided to critique each part of the cycle and to provide feedback to individuals. Critiquing trainee performance should take precedent over completing a cycle each day.

The trainer should focus on gathering data for the seminar in the afternoon (Step 30). This data should reflect process problems within the group and any problems which have become evident between the trainees and the teachers.

STEP 30

PURPOSES

To provide practicum groups with an opportunity to analyze and resolve the process problems impeding group progress.

To provide group trainers with additional opportunity to impart information on the cycle for systematic and objective analysis of instruction.

To provide an opportunity for trainees to focus on their relationships with the teachers.

ACTIVITIES

Seminar: 1 1/2 hours

Maintain regular practicum groups for a discussion of process and content problems which have arisen within the practicum group

Processes of Interpersonal Influence: Situational Exercise (OPTIONAL), pages 111-114

OBJECTIVES

The trainees will:

1. Interpret their own group performance in terms of process
2. Interpret process considerations in their relationships with the teachers

TRAINER'S INFORMATION

Although in theory a group should be able to change from the consideration of content tasks to a consideration of process, this is a difficult transition for a novice group. This seminar provides the opportunity for considering process and content problems which may have been neglected. (The trainer is referred to the information on group processes, pages 31-36.

The group may find it beneficial to role play the situational exercise on Processes of Interpersonal Influence if it was not used in Step 15.

STEP 31

PURPOSES

To increase the trainees' ability to perform the total cycle.

To increase the degree of openness and objectivity in interactions within the practicum group and with teachers.

ACTIVITIES	OBJECTIVES
Practicum: 3 3/4 hours	The trainees will:
Continue practice in performing the cycle for systematic and objective analysis of instruction	1. Demonstrate the procedures involved in planning, observation, analysis, strategy and conference 2. Demonstrate increasing sentitivity to process both within the group and in conferring with the teacher

TRAINER'S INFORMATION

The trainer should provide interventions to help the trainees become more aware of process and to encourage more shifting between the task and process while interacting.

STEP 32

PURPOSE

To provide an opportunity for the trainees to continue assessing their own performance in the program.

ACTIVITIES	OBJECTIVES
Practicum: 15 minutes	The trainees will:
Administer form for Trainee Self-Evaluation Exercise II, page 195	1. Write a personal self-evaluation of performance in the program to date

TRAINER'S INFORMATION

If time permits allow approximately 15 minutes for the trainees to begin working on the self-evaluation exercise. Otherwise, distribute the exercise and have the trainees complete it on their own time. The trainer should note the optional procedure as outlined in Step 20.

TRAINEE SELF-EVALUATION EXERCISE II

I. In each of the following areas assess your own understanding and skill to this point in the program. A rating scale of 1-4 is provided. Circle the number which in your judgment best indicates your present level of performance.

Rating Scale:

4 My present performance level is HIGH
3 My present performance level is GOOD
2 My present performance level is ADEQUATE
1 My present performance level is LOW

- - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -

1 2 3 4 A. Demonstrate provisionally different behaviors as a means to internalizing learning.

1 2 3 4 B. Demonstrate interpersonal communication skills such as paraphrasing, perception checks, behavior description, describing feelings and freeing responses.

1 2 3 4 C. Demonstrate increased interdependence in a group by applying the principles of effective group process.

1 2 3 4 D. Demonstrate skill in establishing interpersonal relationships with others by applying the principles for building trust.

1 2 3 4 E. Plan a lesson jointly with a teacher.

1 2 3 4 F. Formulate performance objectives.

1 2 3 4 G. Distinguish between content and process goals.

1 2 3 4 H. Observe a teaching performance and take verbatim data.

1 2 3 4 I. Analyze a transcript by identifying patterns of teaching behavior.

1 2 3 4 J. Plan strategy based on analysis of verbatim data.

1 2 3 4 K. Utilize the principle of successive approximation.

1 2 3 4 L. Initiate a conference.

1 2 3 4 M. Conduct a conference based on planned strategy.

1 2 3 4 N. Analyze the effect of the conference and provide feedback to the trainee who conducted it.

II. Identify one behavior which you would like to change. Try to describe your plan to alter and/or strengthen this behavior as the program continues. Are there ways the trainer or others in the group might be helpful to you as you try to change this behavior?

STEPS 33-34

PURPOSES

To provide an opportunity for trainees to continue building competency in performing the cycle.

To provide an opportunity for continued appraisal of levels of trainee competency.

ACTIVITIES

Practicum: 4 hours each step

Continue practice in the cycle of systematic and objective analysis of instruction by dividing the practicum group into two subgroups

OBJECTIVES

The trainees will:

1. Demonstrate increasing competency in performing the procedures of planning, observation, analysis, strategy and conference

2. Demonstrate higher levels of sophistication in critiquing individual and group performances in the cycle

TRAINER'S INFORMATION

Beginning with Step 33, the practicum group should divide into two subgroups. Composition of these subgroups need not remain static for the remainder of the program. Members should be allowed to change groups so they have the opportunity to work with and observe all members from their regular practicum group. As these subgroups continue practicing, the trainees should share and rotate responsibility for leading and performing the different parts of the cycle. That is, one trainee should lead a planning session, another should lead the analysis session and so on. By the completion of Step 39, each trainee will have demonstrated and been critiqued on each part of the cycle. This does not imply the trainee must perform the total cycle successively.

The above procedure will necessitate that each subgroup have different teachers to observe. It also requires time be allotted for critiquing trainee performance.

Trainers again should remind workshop participants to complete the Trainee's Daily Log.

STEP 35

PURPOSES

To increase trainee knowledge of models for objective analysis of teaching performance.

To provide information for improving the analysis of verbatim data in terms of teaching patterns.

ACTIVITIES

Seminar: 1 1/2 hours
SYSTEMATIC ANALYSIS OF TEACHING PERFORMANCE

Information on:

1. Ways of organizing data
2. The planned and unplanned effects of certain teaching behaviors
3. Associating patterns with categories of teaching-learning

Systematic Analysis of Teaching Performance, pages 199-202

A Method for Analyzing Teaching Performance and Miniprogram Number One: Analyzing the Way a Teacher Phrases Questions, pages 203-208

Assign Miniprogram Number Two: Analyzing the Way a Teacher Elicits Pupil Response, pages 209-211

OBJECTIVES

The trainees will:

1. Identify possible ways of organizing data
2. Recognize the planned and unplanned effects of certain teaching behaviors
3. Recognize the utility of behavior categories for analyzing data
4. Distinguish between a category of teaching-learning behavior and a pattern of teaching behavior

TRAINER'S INFORMATION

This seminar is intended to be conducted by each trainer in his own practicum group.

It is expected that until this time the trainees have been working at the level of their previous experience in the analysis of teaching. The input here is an attempt to broaden the experience and increase the level of performance.

STEP 35

Trainer's Information

Begin the seminar by informing trainees of the objectives. Distribute the handout on Systematic Analysis of Teaching Performance. Allow time for reading and discussing the handout. As a way of initiating discussion, have the trainees identify the paragraph or paragraphs which personally have the most meaning for them and to explain why. Elicit supporting and/or additional examples of incidental learnings as a consequence of certain teaching behaviors from transcripts previously recorded by the trainees.

After allowing time for discussion, introduce Miniprogram Number One: Analyzing the Way a Teacher Phrases Questions with the handout entitled A Method for Analyzing Teaching Performance. Allow time for the trainees to work through the miniprogram individually and to discuss it as a group. At the conclusion of the session, distribute Miniprogram Number Two: Analyzing the Way a Teacher Elicits Pupil Response, to be completed on the trainee's own time.

SYSTEMATIC ANALYSIS OF TEACHING PERFORMANCE

A person's ability to analyze data from a teaching performance can be enhanced if he is aware of the subtle and incidental effects which can be produced by some patterns of teaching behavior. That is, certain planned or unplanned learnings may be occurring in the classroom as a result of behavior patterns the teacher exhibits. The teacher may plan to do one thing, but the very behavior exhibited may create some kind of unplanned or incidental learning. As an example, it seems fair to assume that teachers generally try to develop a system of classroom communication in which pupils learn from each other, not just from the teacher. This requires that students listen to each other. Suppose a teacher wants the pupils to listen to and learn from each other. Nevertheless, he continually interrupts and repeats their responses to questions. For the pupils, the unplanned learning in this case might be that it is unnecessary for them to listen to anyone in this classroom except the teacher. Eventually, everything that is important will be repeated. This pattern of teaching behavior weakens the desired effect of students listening and learning from each other.

For instance, a second teacher consistently assigns homework or asks the pupils to bring various things to school as an aid to reinforcing classroom learning, then fails to make use of these completed assignments. For the pupils, the unplanned learning is not to do their homework or bring things to school.

In a third situation the teacher wants the pupils to learn correct grammatical expression. He constantly interrupts their responses to make grammatical corrections or stress terminology. If someone were to ask the students, the most important thing in their classroom involves the kind of vocabulary used; not the conceptual ideas. The first thing is to speak very precisely; if a person doesn't speak precisely, he doesn't speak. A fourth teacher plans for the pupils to generate classroom problems of their own, but repeatedly places more emphasis on producing answers to the problems he raises. An incidental learning of this behavior is that the students eventually may regard school as a place where children go to solve the teachers' problems or those raised by someone else. A fifth teacher plans for learning to be pupil and task centered, but perpetually talks in the first person. For example, "I want you to turn to page 31." "Will you look that up for me?" "Now, your job is to convince me of that." If the students were asked, they'd probably say what they do in school is for the teacher's sake, not for their own. For them to really be successful in the classroom, the trick is to please the teacher, not to follow their own interests and content concerns. Another teacher wants the pupils to think for themselves. Yet he continually rewards pupils for guessing correctly what he has in mind. This pattern results in a guessing contest, created by the kinds of questions asked. A seventh teacher wants pupils to be scrupulously polite in their remarks, but is sarcastic and impolite to them. The student learns what is good for the gander is not good for the goose.

An eighth teacher gives reading assignments to let the pupils gain information for problem solving but never structures situations in which the pupils are required to demonstrate knowledge they have read. Incidentally, the students learn to consider facts important in themselves. The knowledge from books is not used to solve problems, or applied to other kinds of situations.

These examples are illustrative of some kinds of incidental learnings that might occur in the classroom. Although the teacher has all the best intentions and has planned for certain outcomes, the behavior exhibited may produce incidental learnings which interfere with the goals of instruction.

These examples tend to illustrate rather strikingly some undesirable effects of certain patterns of teaching behavior. It is obvious, however, that the teacher's plan could produce some very desirable learnings had different behavior patterns been exhibited. In any event, it is apparent certain teaching patterns can have rather subtle effects on classroom learning.

Also related to the preceding point is information from an article by Marie Hughes, "What Teachers Do and the Way They Do It."[1] She indicates, it's not what teachers do, but how they do it that makes some teachers better than others. Most teachers do about the same kinds of things. They give directions, correct pupils, make assignments, evaluate, set standards, approve or disapprove, etc. But the really effective teacher is discernible by the manner in which he performs these acts.

Although there is a wide range of behaviors available to teachers in the classroom, most display a very limited range of behaviors. One of the responsibilities of a supervisor then, is to help teachers identify more alternatives for their selection. The teacher's range of behaviors needs to be increased to allow more choices on how he is going to attain a certain objective.

A few of these behaviors might be considered, one of which relates to ways of giving directions. A teacher might give directions by starting to speak, then, changing his mind, he says, "No, that is not the way I want to do it," and goes off in another direction. Finally, he says, "Oh, no, let's start all over." Obviously, the teacher hasn't thought out the directions. If a direction is given in a very straightforward manner, the students are more apt to understand it. But, if the teacher stops, changes directions and everything is not quite clear, confusion results. It is almost like the multiple questioning technique. The teacher can ask so many questions that the pupils don't know what information they are to supply. This teaching pattern tends to create confusion.

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[1]Hughes, Marie. "What Teachers Do and the Way They Do It," NEA Journal. 53: 11-13; September 1964.

Another style of giving directions takes the form of admonishment. The teacher makes statements like, "Don't forget to put your name in the upper right-hand corner," or "You must be sure to go quietly down the hall." In research, interviewed students tend to interpret this technique as teacher distrust. Wherever that pattern exists, evidence indicates it isn't very effective. Alternatives would be if the teacher were to say, "How do we go down the hall?" or "What is the procedure for writing names on our papers?" These cause less resentment and approach the problem as a joint inquiry process. Together they examine the procedure and how it should be done. It creates a different feeling in the pupils because they have a stake in the task.

An oblique manner of giving directions is sometimes used in situations where the teacher requires all the pupils to do the same thing. For example, the teacher may say, "I like the way Mary sits," or "I like David's paper with its even margins." These statements extend approval to one child and, at the same time, direct the other children in the room about the way it should be done. According to children interviewed, this procedure results in mixed emotions by the individuals receiving the commendation. Those who don't receive the approval feel resentment toward the teacher and the model pupil.

Other behavior patterns involve the way teachers respond to student questions and statements. One of the common teacher response patterns is asking the students a question and reacting to his answer in some way. The most frequent teacher reaction is to repeat the content of the response and accept it with a stereotyped, "Fine," "good" or "yes." The next most frequent teacher reaction is an elaboration of what the student has said--building on pupil ideas. Frequently though, elaborations become lectures and detract from pupil participation. An appropriate question might be, "Could other pupils in the room add to this contribution, or should it be the teacher?" Many teachers tend to overlook several other possible ways of responding. They might ask the students to elaborate: "Do you wish to add anything more, or does anyone else wish to add to what John said?" Another teacher response pattern is to ask for an example, a personal experience, or to base the class discussion on student comments. There are other ways to get the students to add their ideas when class contributions are made. Teachers who vary their responses seem much more flexible and less rigid in following their lesson plan. They feel free to vary it and work with student ideas. They are not intent on following the question exactly as it is written on paper, but can listen and respond to the pupils in relation to the contribution.

As a final example, consider the ways the teacher reinforces or rewards pupils. The most observable teacher pattern is generalized approval like, "Fine," "good," "all right," or "okay." These are expressions of approval and acceptance, but they do not state explicitly what is approved. These responses relate to the general use of praise which results in the student

not knowing whether he is approved for trying or approved for performance. This indiscriminate, stereotyped response pattern does not lead to discrimination on the part of students. A student may stumble through a reading exercise and the teacher says, "That is a good job, Johnny." Johnny knows it wasn't a good job, but he also knows he did it and it was hard for him. To avoid the stereotyped response the teacher might say such things as "You have courage to read aloud to us when you find it so difficult." That's specific and the behavior is rewarded.

In summary then, it is apparent there is a wide range of behaviors which teachers can employ. The wider the range of behaviors, the more flexible the teacher can be in achieving classroom goals. By exhibiting behaviors which are congruent with the planned outcome of instruction, the teacher can enhance greatly the desirable learnings.

A METHOD FOR ANALYZING TEACHING PERFORMANCE

The method of organizing and analyzing teaching performance data in the program for Systematic and Objective Analysis of Instruction has been designed according to patterns of teaching behavior. In this method there is no predetermined category system or list of behavior patterns. Instead, the analyzer examines the data, identifies recurrent behaviors and supplies a name appropriately describing the patterned behavior. The specific name given to each pattern is not critical. It should, however, be reasonably explicit in terms of describing the behavior.

The procedure of identifying patterns can be facilitated if the analyzer thinks of the classroom in terms of instructional categories. That is, there are various categorical behaviors typical of classroom instruction which describe what teachers and pupils do. Teachers ask questions, give directions, make explanations, present information, maintain classroom control, give rewards, make responses and so on. Each of these behaviors is a category; each designates an operation performed in instruction. The way each operation is performed constitutes the basis for identifying patterns of behavior.

In order to help trainees systematically analyze performance data for patterns of behavior, a series of miniprograms have been developed. The following will be introduced at various times throughout the rest of the program.

Analyzing the Way A Teacher Phrases Questions
Analyzing the Way A Teacher Elicits Pupil Response
Analyzing the Thought Level of Teacher Questions
Analyzing the Way A Teacher Gives Directions

Each miniprogram illustrates how an instructional category can yield a variety of possible teaching patterns. The miniprograms are designed somewhat like a programed learning text and require the trainee to perform certain tasks for completion.

MINIPROGRAM NUMBER ONE:

ANALYZING THE WAY A TEACHER PHRASES QUESTIONS

This miniprogram will focus on one aspect of the category of questioning. It will illustrate a variety of potential behavior patterns which a teacher may exhibit as a result of the way the question is phrased.

One pattern is asking questions which are incomplete or indefinite about the intended response. For example,

What about Lincoln?

How about that as a way of reporting?

Why is that so?

This pattern of phrasing questions has the effect of not focusing the pupil response. A teacher who consistently asks questions in this manner is exhibiting a pattern of asking _____questions.

INCOMPLETE, INDEFINITE OR FRAGMENTED

Another possible pattern is phrasing questions in a way which requires the pupil to guess at the correct response. For example,

What do they call material which allows light to pass through it?
(After a pupil response the teacher says, "No, I'm thinking of something else, what is it?")

This pattern of questioning tends to encourage the pupils to guess correctly what the teacher is thinking. It has several possible answers but only one right answer is acceptable in the mind of the teacher. A teacher who repeatedly phrases questions in this manner is demonstrating a pattern of asking _____questions.

GUESSING

A third pattern is asking several different questions in succession without permitting time for the response. Illustrative of this pattern are questions such as,

> What is the square root of four? Is this ever a negative number? Why is this true?

This pattern does not designate which part of the multiple question should be answered. A teacher who questions in this way is showing a pattern of asking _____questions.

MULTIPLE

A fourth possible pattern is for the teacher to rhetorically ask questions. For example,

> Why should a person adopt behavior for reasons other than compliance or identification? He adopts the changed behavior because it helps him solve a problem or fulfill certain values of his own.

Questions of this kind are not intended to be answered and consequently do not elicit pupil oral response. A teacher who consistently questions in this manner is displaying a pattern of asking _____questions.

RHETORICAL

A fifth potential pattern is one of asking questions and then providing clues for answering. Illustrative of this would be,

> Franklin Roosevelt became president in what year...nineteen thirty what?
>
> For what reason did they establish colonies? We mentioned this earlier. It relates to the industrial revolution.

This kind of questioning tends to prompt the recall of specifics. A teacher who exhibits this pattern of question is asking _____questions.

CUE OR CLUE

Another possible pattern is asking run-on questions with intervening and unrelated information. For example,

> If you had, assuming this was possible though it probably isn't, all the grains of sand in the world stacked up...it would be quite a pile, I guess...could you count the grains? ...if you had time, that is, which would be more than a person usually has...

This type of questioning obscures and changes the content focus, possible resulting in an inappropriate response. A teacher who consistently asks questions in this manner is demonstrating a pattern of asking _____ questions.

RUN-ON OR INTERRUPTED

A final pattern might involve the teacher habitually repeating a question word for word before calling on a pupil. For example,

> What questions do you have about the test tomorrow?
> What questions do you have about the test tomorrow?

This pattern of questioning increases teacher talk and is not conducive to a well-paced discussion. If pupils become used to hearing the same question asked several times before a response is expected or allowed, the incidental learning may be inattention to the first time the question is asked. A teacher who asks questions in this way is exhibiting a pattern of _____questions.

REPEATED

The preceding illustrations provide the basis of a model for identifying some patterns of teacher questioning relative to the way the question is phrased. By examining the possible effects of these patterns a teacher can determine whether intent and behavior are congruent.

Miniprogram Number One

As a final culminating exercise for this miniprogram, a partial transcript is presented below. Review the transcript and label the teacher's questions according to the information and criteria previously presented. Some appropriate responses are listed on the back of this page.

T: What percent of high-income families received no medical attention during the year? Twenty what?

_____

P: Twenty-three percent.

T: OK, what about this?

_____

P: Well, families with low incomes had more...

T: No, I meant what is the relationship between the percent...if you know how to figure this... of medical attention, the number who go to doctors, and income?

_____

P: Oh, I didn't understand that point.

T: Aren't statistics powerful? You can see that a lot of implications can be drawn from this data.

_____

T: What is the relationship between family income and medical attention? How can you compare income with medical attention? Do you have any ideas?

_____

P: . . .

T: What is the best way to solve this problem?

_____

P: . . .

T: No, I was thinking of something else. What conclusions can you infer by comparing family income with the amount of medical attention?

_____

Appropriate Responses

Cue or Clue Question

Incomplete, Indefinite or Fragmented Question

Run-on or Interrupted Question

Rhetorical Question

Multiple Question

Guessing Question

Repeated Question

MINIPROGRAM NUMBER TWO:

ANALYZING THE WAY A TEACHER ELICITS PUPIL RESPONSE

One aspect of classroom discussion or recitation is the way in which the teacher elicits oral responses from pupils. The pupils either participate after being designated to respond or they interact voluntarily and freely. The technique the teacher uses in eliciting these responses has special implications for the quality of discussion and learning.

Harris has developed a useful model or guide for identifying patterns of teaching behavior which elicit pupil responses.[1] The model describes five basic types of pupil response. These types are solitary, controlled, uncontrolled, spontaneous and mass responses.

The solitary response is characterized by a question(s) being posed after a specific pupil has been designated to respond. With this method of eliciting responses the class tends to look upon the question as a private matter between the teacher and designated respondent. It does not require total class attention and it prevents pupil-to-pupil interaction. The teacher who repeatedly elicits responses by naming a pupil and then asking a question is exhibiting a pattern of eliciting _____ pupil responses.

SOLITARY

The controlled response is characterized by a question being posed first, then designating a pupil to respond. Most of the pupils recognize a need to listen to the question because they may be called on to answer. However, the teacher still designates a respondent which prevents pupil-to-pupil interaction without teacher intervention. A teacher who repeatedly asks a question and then names a respondent is demonstrating a pattern of eliciting _____ pupil responses.

CONTROLLED

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[1]Adapted from Harris, Ben M. Supervisory Behavior in Education. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1963. 162-63.

Miniprogram Number Two

The uncontrolled response is characterized by the teacher presenting a question with no one designated to respond. This method permits the self-selection of respondents. It necessitates the pupils assume responsibility for contributing to discussion and has the effect of allowing free, pupil-to-pupil interaction. A teacher who repeatedly elicits responses by presenting a question without naming a respondent is demonstrating a pattern of eliciting _____ pupil responses.

UNCONTROLLED

The spontaneous response occurs without questioning or designation of a respondent by the teacher. Pupils can contribute a comment or question without the teacher directly initiating the response. This type of response pattern usually evolves with the teacher posing an uncontrolled question which the pupil answers, followed by spontaneous responses from other pupils. It permits pupil-to-pupil interaction and encourages free and open discussion. A teacher whose recurrent behavior is of this type is exhibiting a pattern of eliciting _____ responses.

SPONTANEOUS

The mass response is characterized by a number of pupils responding to a question simultaneously. This response type is often used in connection with rote-learning activities such as in foreign language classes. A teacher who repeatedly asks questions which require all pupils to answer at the same time is exhibiting a pattern of eliciting_____responses.

MASS

This model provides a means for identifying teacher behavior patterns which effect pupil response. Pupil interaction during class discussion is determined partially by the way the teacher elicits responses. Discussion is also determined by the way a teacher asks questions and the thought level of the question, but this miniprogram is concerned with the way respondents are designated by the teacher.

Miniprogram Number Two

The teacher who asks solitary and controlled response questions is not likely to stimulate pupil-to-pupil interaction or genuine discussion; nor are pupils likely to feel free to be imaginative and spontaneous. The result more likely will be a recitation in which the interaction is teacher-to-pupil with a predominance of teacher talk.

Conversely, the teacher who really wants discussion participation will pattern his behavior in ways which elicit uncontrolled and spontaneous pupil responses.

STEPS 36-37

PURPOSES

To increase trainee competency in performing the cycle.

To increase the trainees' ability to identify a greater number and variety of patterns at higher levels of complexity.

ACTIVITIES

Practicum: 4 hours each step

Continued subgroup practice in the cycle of systematic and objective analysis of instruction

Miniprogram Number Three: Analyzing the Thought Level of Teacher Questions (Step 36), pages 213-219

OBJECTIVES

The trainees will:

1. Demonstrate increasing competency in performing the procedures of planning, observation, analysis, strategy and conferences

2. Demonstrate increasing competency in the identification and interpretation of behavior patterns

TRAINER'S INFORMATION

These sessions should proceed in much the same manner as initiated in Steps 33 and 34. That is, with the trainees rotating roles; demonstrating and critiquing different parts of the cycle in their subgroups.

At the same time, efforts should be made to apply information from Step 35 which can produce greater insight into analysis of the data.

At the end of Step 36 distribute Miniprogram Number Three: Analyzing the Thought Level of Teacher Questions. The trainees should work through the Miniprogram on their own time.

Have one of the trainees tape record or take verbatim data on a conference during Step 36 or 37. This data will be used for critiquing by the group in Step 38, Strategy and the Conference.

MINIPROGRAM NUMBER THREE:

ANALYZING THE THOUGHT LEVEL OF TEACHER QUESTIONS

The level of classroom discussion and thinking is related to the kinds of questions or problems a teacher poses for pupil response. One useful model for classifying the thought levels being sought or elicited by a teacher has been developed by Sanders.[1] His classification scheme of thinking is organized into seven areas including memory, translation, interpretation, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. The scheme is hierarchical in nature, meaning that each level also includes some form of all the lower levels.

This Miniprogram has been designed to acquaint you with Sanders' model. It can be used in identifying patterns of teaching and learning behavior within the broader category of classroom thinking.

A memory level question requires pupils to recognize and recall information. For example,

> Helen Keller was nineteen months old when an acute illness left her totally blind and completely deaf. In her autobiography, The Story of My Life, she writes, "Gradually, I got used to the silence and darkness that surrounded me and forgot that it had ever been different." It was a "...silent, aimless, dayless life." for Helen until, when she was nearly seven, Annie Sullivan came to live with the Kellers and began the seemingly hopeless task of teaching her.

After requiring the pupils to read the above paragraph, a teacher might ask the following memory level question.

> "How old was Helen Keller when she was stricken with an acute illness?"

WHICH OF THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS CALLS FOR MORE THAN RECALL ON THE PART OF THE PUPILS?

a. What is the title of Helen Keller's autobiography?

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[1]Sanders, Norris M. Classroom Questions: What Kinds? New York: Harper and Row, 1966.

b. Who came to live with the Kellers so she could teach Helen?

c. Explain, in your own words, the quotation, "The silence and darkness that surrounded me..."

The third question (c.) requires the pupil to do more than simple recall.

Translation requires pupils to change or interpret ideas into their own words or different symbolic form. For example, question c. above requires the pupils to interpret ideas into their own words.

WHICH OF THE FOLLOWING PROBLEMS REPRESENTS THE THINKING LEVEL OF TRANSLATION?

a. Pupils have been studying safety. The teacher uses an opaque projector to show pictures which illustrate certain safety practices. Then pupils are asked to describe which safety practice is shown in each picture.

b. Pupils are asked to draw a cartoon illustrating some phase of fire safety. (Quality of art is not important. The stress is on expression of the idea.)

c. Pupils are asked to act out an episode based on a study of a situation. Nobody learns lines, but simply plays a part. (Stress placed on changing the material to dramatic form. Creativity, originality and dramatic ability are not emphasized.)

All three projects require pupils to change or interpret ideas into their own words or a different symbolic form.

Interpretation level questions require pupils to draw, discover or use relationships between ideas. For example, do the United States and South Africa have the same or different attitudes toward the problem of race relations?

Miniprogram Number Three

WHICH OF THE FOLLOWING IS NOT AN INTERPRETATIVE QUESTION?

a. What are the similarities and differences between Chinese and Russian Communists?

b. Compare Martin Luther King's accomplishments for the improvement of human rights with those of John F. Kennedy. Only those comparisons listed in the text will be accepted.

c. In what ways are the American schools of today different from those of the 1930's?

Question b. necessitates recalling facts from a list of comparisons already made for the pupil. He does not draw relationships between ideas.

Application requires the pupils to solve a lifelike problem. This level is designed to give pupils practice in the transfer of learning. For example, the teacher sets up a problem in bookkeeping which requires pupils to use a "balance sheet." It is similar to one students might encounter as a bookkeeper.

WHICH OF THE FOLLOWING DOES NOT REQUIRE THE APPLICATION LEVEL OF THINKING?

a. Pupils have been working in small groups studying the problems of "emerging" nations. Each group is to select major problems and write a letter to the Secretary of State presenting its recommendations for United States policy.

b. After studying the constitution of the United States, pupils are asked to write a constitution for their class and set up the machinery for its operation.

c. Pupils are assigned a "mock-trial." The teacher gives each student a copy of an actual trial. He assigns a part to each and instructs them to memorize what they can, but to paraphrase that which is too hard to memorize.

Problem c. is not an application problem. It calls for memory and, possibly, translation.

Miniprogram Number Three

Analysis requires pupils to be aware of reasoning processes in solving problems and reaching conclusions. Some examples of a reasoning process are inference, generalization, analogies, etc. The distinctive feature of the analysis category is its requirement that problems be solved with conscious knowledge of the parts and processes of reasoning. Illustrative of this level would be to analyze the following quotation: "A sports writer asserts that Oswego University will take Jordan College on the gridiron tomorrow the way Grant took Richmond." An appropriate analysis would point out this quotation makes use of an analogy. That is, the writer has expressed a judgment based upon an analogy between things of two different classes (athletic contest and war). It would not require an explanation of what the quotation means.

FOR THE FOLLOWING ARGUMENT WHICH COMMENT (a. or b.) IS AN EXAMPLE OF THE ANALYSIS LEVEL OF THINKING?

"The United Nations should be strengthened by changing it from a confederation to a federation. Our country was divided and weak under the Articles of Confederation but became united and strong under a Federal Constitution."

a. The argument offers an analogy from the early history of our nation to prove the need for centralizing the power of the United Nations. An analogy often provides a fruitful source of hypotheses but never can be considered to be proof. A weakness of this analogy is that the relations among the thirteen original colonies are quite different from those among modern nations.

b. Just because a federation was more suitable for the thirteen original states does not necessarily mean that a federation would be best for the nations of the world. The people in the thirteen states had similar political, economic, cultural and religious institutions. The nations of the world today are made up of people who have far less in common.

The first comment (a.) is an example of analytical thinking because it explains the form of the argument or the kind of reasoning involved (analogy).

Miniprogram Number Three

Synthesis presents an opportunity for pupils to solve problems requiring original and creative thinking. Original, that is, from the pupil's point of view. An example would be to instruct pupils to draw up a plan in which the class could participate in the campaign to make the election of the President of the United States dependent on popular vote.

WHICH OF THE FOLLOWING PROBLEMS COULD NOT BE CLASSIFIED IN THE SYNTHESIS CATEGORY?

a. Pupil goes into the library to select a book to read. He consults a list of criteria for book selection given by his teacher and selects a book by that standard.

b. A group of pupils is asked to write a constitution for the student government of the school.

c. The teacher shows a cartoon to the class. She asks them to write as many captions as they can.

Answer a. is not in the synthesis category. It does not require original or creative thinking.

Evaluation requires the pupil to make a judgment of good or bad, right or wrong, according to the standards he designates. For example, "Is the book well written from a literary standpoint?" is an evaluation level question.

HOW WOULD YOU CLASSIFY THE FOLLOWING QUESTION? WHY?

Which novel do you feel most convincingly illustrates the "trials" of adolescence: J.D. Salinger's, The Catcher in the Rye, or John Knowles, A Separate Peace? Support your decision by referring to specifics in the novel.

This question should be classified in the evaluation category. It requires the pupil to designate standards for "trials" of adolescence and the opportunity to show which novel he feels best meets his standards.

Miniprogram Number Three

Now that you have been introduced to the various categories, see how well you can classify the following questions or problems a teacher might use in a unit on conducting a meeting. Classify each, using the seven categories of Sanders. The correct responses are on the back of this page. If any of your answers are incorrect, go back and reread those sections which pertain to that category.

1. Recite the definition of parliamentary procedure as given in the textbook. _____

2. Devise a plan whereby all the student body officers of our school may receive training in parliamentary procedure. _____

3. Restate the following sentence in your own words. "The basic aim of parliamentary procedure is to provide a way for a group to come to a decision in the simplest and most direct manner while providing free debate, protecting the rights of the minority, and ensuring the rule of the majority." _____

4. Is parliamentary procedure the most effective tool for running a meeting? Explain. _____

5. As a class, we shall hold a mock interclub council meeting using the rules of parliamentary procedure. We shall use the constitution of our school's interclub as our constitution. Each pupil will submit motions he feels will improve the operation of the clubs in our school. _____

6. Analyze the following quotation, "Men are never so likely to settle a question rightly, as when they discuss it freely." - Macaulay _____

7. Compare the use of parliamentary procedure in large groups of 50 or more to its use in a small group of 5 to 10 people. _____

Appropriate Responses

1. Memory	It requires the pupils to simply recall a definition.
2. Synthesis	This project requires the pupil to do some original thinking in developing knowledge which is new to him.
3. Translation	Here the pupil is required to change ideas into his own words.
4. Evaluation	In this question the pupil has to set standards for what is an effective meeting; he also is required to make an evaluative judgment.
5. Application	Pupils are given a lifelike problem to solve.
6. Analysis	In this problem the pupil is required to point out that the quotation is a generalization based on many assumptions. He does not need to give the meaning of the quote.
7. Interpretation	Here the pupil is required to draw a relationship.

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STEP 38

PURPOSES

To show how knowledge of interpersonal relationships, strategies of teaching and systems of supervision are fused in the conference.

To increase trainee knowledge of how the supervisor's behavior can affect achievement of the ultimate goal of self-supervision.

To provide information on the purposes of the strategy session, and ways of initiating and conducting the conference.

ACTIVITIES

Seminar: 1 1/2 hours
STRATEGY AND THE CONFERENCE

The rationale, content and process of planning the strategy and conducting a conference.

Strategy and the Conference

Subtitles:
"Supervisory Behavior as Related to Self-Directed Teaching," pages 222-224
"The Task of Planning Strategy," pages 226-228
"Initiating, Conducting and Evaluating a Conference," pages 229-231

OBJECTIVES

The trainees will:

1. Recognize the relationship between supervisory behavior and the goal of self-directed teaching
2. Compare planned strategy with focus in the conference
3. Recognize the tasks involved in planning strategy
4. Identify ways of initiating and conducting a conference
5. Identify ways to evaluate a conference

TRAINER'S INFORMATION

This seminar is intended to be conducted by each trainer with his own practicum group.

Initiate this seminar by distributing the first three pages of the handout Strategy and the Conference with the subtitle, "Supervisory Behavior as Related to Self-Directed Teaching." The trainees should read and discuss the contents.

Second, pose the question, "What are the tasks involved in planning strategy?" The trainees should interact as a group by identifying the tasks involved. Follow this discussion by distributing pages 226-228 of Strategy and the Conference subtitled, "The Task of Planning Strategy." Read the contents and compare tasks involved in planning strategy identified by the trainees with those in the handout.

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Trainer's Information

Distribute the last three pages (229-231) of Strategy and the Conference subtitled, "Initiating, Conducting and Evaluating the Conference." The trainees should read and discuss.

As a culminating activity for this seminar, critique a conference which has been previously conducted by a trainee and recorded on audiotape or verbatim transcript. Critique the conference in relation the the content of this seminar. That is, how the strategy was planned, how the trainee's supervisory behavior affected the teacher's behavior in regard to trust and self-analysis, and how the conference was initiated, conducted and evaluated.

If the trainees by this point in the program have not generated a procedure for conducting a conference, it may be helpful to present the model below as a part of the seminar content.

CONFERENCE MODEL

Step One: Determine Conference Focus

- Identify and name the pattern(s) to be dealt with in relation to the supervisee's goals
- Read verbatim data to illustrate the pattern(s)

Step Two: Determine or Hypothesize Effect

- Determine whether the pattern(s) produced planned and/or unplanned effects
- Examine whether the pattern(s) facilitated or impeded progress toward the objectives

Step Three: Identify Alternative Teaching Behaviors

- Examine a range of alternative behaviors from which the supervisee might choose
- Hypothesize possible effects of the alternatives suggested

It is important to note that in this model the extent to which the supervisee participates at each step is contingent on the supervisor's planned strategy and the supervisee's readiness and ability. Since the goal is for the supervisee to become self-analytical and self-directed, he should be involved in the process as much as possible. Each time the cycle is performed, the supervisee should be involved with increasing levels of intensity.

STRATEGY AND THE CONFERENCE

Supervisory Behavior as Related to Self-Directed Teaching

The strategy and conference sessions integrate total content for the systematic and objective analysis of instruction into a meaningful whole. It is in this phase of the cycle that the supervisor synthesizes knowledge of interpersonal relationships, strategies of teaching and systems of supervision into a focus for assisting the teacher.

Basic to this synthesis process is the ultimate goal of systematic and objective analysis of instruction: the teacher, as a professional person, should become skilled in analysis of his own teaching behavior and have sufficient autonomy and responsibility to direct changes accordingly. Self-analyzed, self-directed teaching behavior, is the planned outcome.

This concept has certain implications for the behavior of the supervisor. For one, the supervisor must be able to establish a reciprocating, growth-producing relationship with the teacher: the foundations of this kind of relationship are competence and intention. The supervisor must demonstrate competence; demonstrate certain skills unique to his role which help to systematically and objectively analyze instruction. Likewise, he must demonstrate positive intentions toward the teacher; demonstrate that his best interests are at heart, their goals are the same and they are partners jointly involved in a problem solving process. The supervisor's understanding and application of the factors for establishing a trust relationship can help him achieve this goal. If the teacher is to become self-directed, he has to be able to trust the change agent.

A second implication of this concept is that a teacher can become self-analytical and self-directed only if he is free to be independent of the supervisor. Of utmost importance is the process by which behavior change takes place. Therefore, in this regard, compliance is not an acceptable mode of behavior change. Neither is identification. The teacher who is being compliant or is identifying with the supervisor is attempting to gain reward, avoid punishment or derive satisfaction from the relationship. He is not free and autonomous, but rather is being controlled by the supervisor. Eventually, the mode of behavior change must be internalization. A person cannot be expected to internalize immediately, however, if characteristically his mode of behavior has been compliance. One must start where the teacher is and wean him of his compliance. Internalization will occur only if the teacher feels relatively independent of the supervisor. The teacher has to feel free to change his behavior because it will help him solve a problem, fulfill certain personal expectations or improve his own teaching. The teacher has to feel free to make a provisional try, to expose his behavior, to make a mistake without the threat of failure. He must feel free to select teaching

strategies from a number of alternatives--whether these alternatives are his own or those of the supervisor--and to modify them to fit his own style. The supervisor must create a situation in which the teacher is encouraged to make provisional tries and experiment with new ways of solving problems. Such a situation will lead to internalization and autonomy.

If a teacher is to become self-analytical and self-directed he eventually must develop many of the same skills as the supervisor. This is a sophisticated notion. It is also a rather complex process to implement because the first goal of a conference usually is to help the teacher to solve problems which are immediate to the teaching situation. Solving the immediate problem may conflict temporarily with the long-term goal of self-analysis and self-direction.

A useful guideline in this situation, however, is the principle of successive approximation. That is, a supervisor must study the total picture and order immediate and long-range goals in terms of the ultimate outcomes. Since the behavioral change cannot be accomplished all at one time, he must look for the logic in the performance which determines those things to be accomplished first, second and third. The supervisor's initial goal is to deal with the performance data crucial to the here and now; this means the goal of self-analysis is ordered for a later time.

In addition, the teacher can be taught many of the skills of analysis by the way the supervisor conducts the conference. That is, incidentally, the teacher can learn certain skills and attitudes through the method or process employed in the conference. For example, the supervisor may take a very didactic approach in the conference by analyzing the lesson for the teacher, identifying his strengths and weaknesses, and advising him of appropriate treatments. In this case the teacher is a passive recipient of the supervisor's knowledge. Such a conference method can produce certain incidental outcomes. If the teacher is inclined to be dependent, he may become even more dependent. Conversely, if the teacher is inclined to be relatively independent, he may appear to become counterdependent or at least unresponsive in the relationship. In any event, this direct method of conferring would seem to produce learnings which are incongruent with the goal of self-directed teaching.

On the other hand, the supervisor may gather data on the performance, involve the teacher in the analysis of the data by joint examination of the apparent effects, and between them identify alternative teaching strategies. In this conference method, the teacher is actively participating and incidentally learning some of the supervisor's skills which can help him to become more self-sufficient.

Strategy and the Conference

In summary, IF THE TEACHER IS GOING TO DEVELOP SKILLS OF SELF-ANALYSIS AND EVENTUALLY BECOME SELF-DIRECTED IN HIS TEACHING BEHAVIOR, WHAT ARE THE IMPLICATIONS WHICH ARE CRUCIAL TO THE SUPERVISOR? (Write three responses in the space below. Appropriate responses are on the back.)

1.

2.

3.

Appropriate Responses

1. Establishing a trust relationship

2. Encouraging an attitude of provisional try

3. Helping the teacher develop some of the skills for self-supervision

STRATEGY AND THE CONFERENCE

The Task of Planning Strategy

To this point, we have discussed how the supervisor's behavior affects achievement of the ultimate outcome of self-supervision. In the final analysis it represents an attitude about supervision. This attitude is intended to serve as a base for formulating strategy and conducting a conference.

Strategy is defined as the processes utilized by an individual or group in planning the conference session where the teacher gains the benefits of an observation and analysis. For the supervisor, it represents the formulation of a plan for helping the teacher to learn about the effects of his teaching behavior. The purpose of the strategy session, therefore, is to prepare the supervisor, and ultimately the teacher, for the conference to follow.

The focus of the conference is usually on teaching behavior and its effect on the learning behavior of pupils. Consequently, the strategy session provides a time of premeditation for selecting those patterns of behavior to be discussed in the conference. Obviously, the supervisor cannot deal with all the patterns generated from analysis of the data. He has to be selective. Two conditions affect this process of selectivity. One centers on the immediate concerns of the teacher. That is, if there are certain teaching behaviors for which he wants feedback, these patterns become a focal point of the conference. This condition is related to the psychological principle of readiness for new learning. The most important learnings under these circumstances are what the teacher perceives to be important. Until his perceptions are satisfied or changed, he is not ready for new learnings.

The second condition involves the principle of successive approximation. All the patterns of teaching behavior need to be looked at in terms of their logical order as related to classroom objectives, complexity of change and the teacher's capability for change. Mastery of prerequisite patterns of behavior are basic to subsequent achievement of more complex teaching behaviors. The teacher will not try new behaviors which are beyond his powers or appear too risky.

Also affecting the focus of the conference is the matter of developing rapport or trust with the teacher. Initial planning, observation and conference sessions usually provoke anxiety. If the supervisor suspects this, he really has only one clear choice. That is to deal with the problem of anxiety in the conference. Anxiety is a process concern which directly affects the relationship between them. If the problem of anxiety is to be resolved, those affected must talk openly about it and determine the cause. The method may vary, but it could be handled. effectively by checking perceptions and attending to certain questions. For example, the supervisor may say, "I get the feeling you are anxious about this conference or this system of analyzing instruction. Am I correct?" If the teacher responds affirmatively, joint attention may be devoted to establishing the cause, why it is so, and how it can be

reduced. This method or topic could occupy a total conference session and possibly parts of subsequent conferences. If the resolution of anxiety is considered essential to establishing trust and achieving goals, it becomes a planned focus for the conference.

By now it is apparent there are numerous factors and conditions to be taken into account while planning strategy. Selection of the actual strategy to be employed is contingent on the objectives to be achieved in the conference. Whatever the objectives, it is imperative that alternative strategies be planned. If the supervisor is to avoid being caught with his plans down, he must be prepared for emergency situations. These may cause the conference to take unexpected directions. For example, the supervisor may suspect from the planning and analysis sessions, that the teacher will be particularly concerned about the extent of pupil participation during discussion, and the effectiveness of his questioning pattern to elicit pupil response. Hence, the supervisor decides on this concern as a focus for the conference. Once into the conference, however, he may find the teacher is concerned vitally at that moment with the ways he responds to and reinforces pupil contributions. Unless the supervisor is sufficiently familiar with the data and sensitive to the teacher's patterns of behavior in that area, he runs the risk of being unprepared to effectively provide feedback on the performance. The supervisor must be alert to and prepared for the unexpected by planning alternative strategies.

A second form of planning alternatives in the strategy session is the need to plan for suggested alternative teaching behaviors, once the patterns have been selected. In other words, if the conference centers around certain teaching behaviors and their apparent effects, other possible alternative teaching behaviors need to be proposed which may produce different effects. The intent, however, is not to imply the teaching behaviors of the teacher are ineffective. One of the purposes of exploring alternative teaching behaviors is to show there are numerous ways to vary procedure and achieve classroom goals. Each teaching procedure needs to be examined and evaluated in light of its consequences. The teacher must try continually to extend the range of alternative behaviors from which he can choose. The supervisor, while encouraging him to arrive at alternatives, also must have other alternatives in readiness. The ability to suggest alternative behaviors when the situation demands is a direct reflection on the supervisor's competence.

To sum up: the strategy session is a period of premeditation for determining the conduct of the conference. LIST THE TASKS INVOLVED IN PLANNING STRATEGY.

1.

2.

3.

Tasks Involved

1. Selecting patterns of teaching behavior as a focus for the conference
2. Planning alternative strategies for carrying out the conference
3. Identifying alternative teaching behaviors which may produce different effects

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STRATEGY AND THE CONFERENCE

Initiating, Conducting and Evaluating A Conference

The conference is the point where planned strategy is implemented. It usually (with previously noted exceptions) will focus on examination of the selected patterns of behavior and the real and apparent effects of the teaching performance. The data is used to provide specific and observable feedback to the teacher on his teaching behavior and the classroom situation. When brought to his attention in connection with other possible alternatives of behavior, it can help him change his behavior.

Of some concern at this stage are possible ways of initiating and conducting the conference. Because this is normally dependent on the strategy there are no set ways. There are, however, variations which can be employed. Some of the procedures which may serve this function of initiating and conducting the conference are as follows:

1. Use the area of concern suggested by the teacher during the planning session as a focus for the conference. This approach has minimal threat and gives the supervisor an opportunity to demonstrate how the data can be analyzed and used to explore alternative behaviors.

2. Permit the teacher to communicate his perceptions of the lesson he has taught. This would represent a kind of self-examination of the lesson and what he considered to be effective and ineffective. The supervisor can help by supplying data that does or does not substantiate the teacher's perceptions. A word of caution is noted, however, since this format requires the teacher to commit himself. He may become defensive when other views are proposed. A strength of this procedure is in his learning to be more analytical about his own teaching.

3. Read segments of the data to the teacher which illustrate a particular pattern of behavior not obvious to him. The pattern, for example, may illustrate a teaching behavior that is producing incidental outcomes. After the behavior is revealed, alternative teaching behaviors can be discussed that may produce different effects.

4. Suggest the teacher reteach the lesson or parts of it to the supervisor(s) as it was originally taught to the pupils. As the lesson proceeds, various teaching and pupil behaviors may be isolated and examined in light of their consequences.

Suggestions can be made, the teacher can reteach by incorporating these suggestions, and the results of these new behaviors examined. This procedure is especially useful in group supervision where group members can follow their transcripts and play the roles of the pupils.

5. Occasionally, a rather straightforward, didactic analysis of the data may be made by the supervisor to bring out a point of view. This procedure can lead to a discussion of the particular view, and its possible implications for the teacher.

TASK: BEFORE CONTINUING WITH YOUR READING, TAKE TIME TO THINK ABOUT ANOTHER WAY OF INITIATING AND CONDUCTING A CONFERENCE. IT MAY BE ONE YOU HAVE ALREADY TRIED OR WOULD LIKE TO TRY. DESCRIBE IT BRIEFLY BELOW AND THEN DISCUSS IT WITH THE OTHERS IN YOUR GROUP.

6.

Finally, in regard to ways of initiating and conducting the conference, there is one technique practiced often, but seldom productive. It is the so-called "sandwich" technique. In this method the supervisor says something sweet and complimentary to the teacher. He praises a personal characteristic or part of the lesson, then slips in something critical, which is then followed by more "good" talk. The process is repeated until the criticisms have been expended.

Analysis of this technique, without careful observation of its results, could lead one to believe that extrinsic reward such as candy, stars on a chart or commendation is the preferred and more valuable kind of reinforcement or motivation. The contrary, however, is true. Examination of What Psychology Can We Trust? by Goodwin Watson reveals, "...the type of reward (reinforcement) which has the greatest transfer value to other life situations is the kind one gives oneself--the sense of satisfaction in achieving purposes."[1]

[1]Watson, Goodwin. What Psychology Can We Trust? New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1961. Page 4.

Strategy and the Conference

The "sandwich" technique leads not to satisfaction in achievement of goals, but to dependence on the dispenser of the rewards. Once the reward-giver is out of the picture, there is no need to strive. And, it is in direct conflict with the ultimate goal of self-directed teaching behavior.

In summary, there are a variety of ways for initiating and conducting the conference. The list is not intended to be exhaustive, because in the final analysis the procedures employed will be adapted to fit the individual styles and the strategies planned.

At the conclusion of the conference, the supervisor, like the teacher when he teaches, needs to receive feedback as to the effect of the conference. Without such information, he cannot expect to improve his performance. In a sense, this is a form of self-evaluation, which can be done at different times. One type of evaluation occurs as the supervisor is planning strategy. Hypotheses are formulated and are accepted or rejected on the basis of existing conditions and knowledge of the teacher. This type of evaluation may be of little value since the conference may prove to be quite different from that hypothesized. The real value, however, should be in developing skills to predict effective patterns and procedures for certain situations.

A second type of continuous evaluation occurs during the conference. The supervisor may find it desirable to change the direction of the conference to pursue a particular item in depth. It also may be desirable to change the procedure because of process problems which are interfering with communication, causing defensiveness or the rejection of ideas. This amounts to shifting the focus of the conference from task or content concerns to process. These changes are based on an immediate assessment of the situation. They are made in the interest of long-range supervisory effectiveness.

A third type of evaluation can be made at the end of the conference by asking the teacher to reiterate what he has gained. In some of the first conferences, the teacher may need some prompting. His ability to verbalize the benefits of the conference is one criterion for assessing its effectiveness. This review could indicate which areas of the supervisor's behavior needs to be changed. It also represents one way to terminate a conference.

A similar check also can be made on the effectiveness of the conference by the teacher's efforts to incorporate some of the ideas gained into planning for the next lesson, as well as those lessons that follow.

In conclusion, there are several ways to assess effectiveness of the conference. The ultimate evaluation, however, is manifested in the changed behavior of the teacher. Only his implementation of improved teaching behaviors will determine the <u>real</u> effectiveness of the conference and the supervisor.

STEP 39

PURPOSES

To increase trainee competency in performing the cycle.

To increase the trainees' ability to plan strategy and conduct a conference.

ACTIVITIES

Practicum: 4 hours

Continued practice in performing the cycle for systematic and objective analysis of instruction in two subgroups

OBJECTIVES

The trainees will:

1. Demonstrate increasing competency in performing the procedures of planning, observation, analysis, strategy and conference

2. Demonstrate increasing competency in ordering behavioral patterns, planning strategy and conducting a conference

3. Demonstrate flexibility by changing from planned strategy to an alternative strategy if called for in the conference

TRAINER'S INFORMATION

Emphasis in the practicum should be on developing greater insight for the conduction of strategy and conference sessions by applying information from Step 38.

By the end of this practicum session each trainee should have demonstrated and been critiqued on a planning, observation, analysis, strategy and conference session.

STEP 40

PURPOSE

To provide an opportunity for the trainees to assess their growth in the program.

ACTIVITIES	OBJECTIVES
Practicum: 15 minutes	The trainees will:
Administer Trainee Self-Evaluation Exercise III, page 234	1. Write a personal self-evaluation of growth in the program to date

TRAINER'S INFORMATION

Allow approximately 15 minutes for the trainees to begin work on the self-evaluation exercise. The trainer should note the optional procedure as outlined in Step 20.

TRAINEE SELF-EVALUATION EXERICSE III

I. In each of the following areas assess your own understanding and skill at this point in the program. A rating scale of 1-4 is provided. Circle the number which in your judgment best indicates your present level of performance.

Rating Scale:

4 My present performance level is HIGH
3 My present performance level is GOOD
2 My present performance level is ADEQUATE
1 My present performance level is LOW

- -

1 2 3 4 A. Demonstrate provisionally different behaviors as a means to internalizing learning

1 2 3 4 B. Demonstrate interpersonal communication skills such as paraphrasing, perception checks, behavior descriptions, describing feelings and freeing responses

1 2 3 4 C. Demonstrate increased interdependence in a group by applying the principles of effective group process

1 2 3 4 D. Demonstrate skill in establishing interpersonal relationships with others by applying the principles for building trust

1 2 3 4 E. Plan instructional objectives with a teacher which include observable pupil behavior, conditions for learning and criteria of acceptable performance

1 2 3 4 F. Observe a teaching performance and record in verbatim transcript most of the verbal and nonverbal behavior

1 2 3 4 G. Analyze the transcript from the observation for patterns of teaching and learning behavior

1 2 3 4 H. Plan strategy for a conference based on analysis of the transcript

1 2 3 4 I. Conduct a conference which enables the teacher to gain insight into his teaching and possible alternative behaviors

1 2 3 4 J. Share reactions to the critical analysis of one's own and others performance in relation to the objectives of this program

II. Identify one behavior which you would like to change. Try to describe on the back those ways you plan to alter and/or strengthen this behavior as the program continues. Are there ways the trainer or others in the group might be helpful to you as you try to change this behavior?

STEPS 41-42

PURPOSES

To increase individual trainee responsibility for completing the cycle with a teacher.

To summarize the various aspects of the cycle into an integrated and meaningful whole.

ACTIVITIES

Practicum: 4 hours each step

Continued practice by twos and threes of the cycle of systematic and objective analysis of instruction

Miniprogram Number Four: Analyzing the Way a Teacher Gives Directions, pages 236-237

OBJECTIVES

The trainees will:

1. Demonstrate increasing individual competency in performing the parts of the total cycle in succession
2. Demonstrate higher levels of sophistication in critiquing self and individual trainee performance
3. Demonstrate some skills in performing the conference as the culminating activity of the cycle

TRAINER'S INFORMATION

Beginning with Step 41, the practicum group should divide into subgroups of twos and threes to increase the number of cycles each trainee can practice. Composition of these subgroups need not remain static for the remainder of the program. Members should be allowed to change groups so they have the opportunity to work with and observe all members from their regular practicum groups.

During Step 41, one trainee in each subgroup should be expected to perform, with the assistance of his partner(s), a complete cycle with a teacher. The subgroup members then change roles and repeat the procedure during Steps 42, 44 and 45. While demonstrating the cycle, the trainee should exercise increasing self-analysis and evaluation of his performance.

At the conclusion of Step 41 assign the trainees to complete Miniprogram Number Four on their own time. The trainees also should be reminded of the final paper on their self-analysis and evaluation which is due at the beginning of Step 44.

NOTE: The number of subgroups into which the practicum can be divided is limited by the number of teachers available. Each subgroup will need at least one teacher to observe.

MINIPROGRAM NUMBER FOUR:

ANALYZING THE WAY A TEACHER GIVES DIRECTIONS

Another categorical teacher behavior typical of classroom instruction is giving directions. All teachers give directions, but within this category a teacher may exhibit different patterns.

For example, a teacher may make statements such as,

"Open your books to page 9."

"Read the second paragraph on page 9."

"Take out pencil and paper."

These directions are explicit. They are distinctly stated, plain in language, and clear. It is reasonably definitive to say a teacher whose recurring behavior is of this type exhibits a pattern of giving _____questions.

EXPLICIT OR DISTINCT

A second teacher may give directions in a vague or indefinite way.

"Four of you take this section and write five questions and answers on two pages."

"Write your questions so they'll be mixed up, so you will get some from the other side and your own."

A teacher who repeatedly gives directions in this manner is demonstrating a pattern of giving _____directions.

NONSPECIFIC OR INDEFINITE

Miniprogram Number Four

Another teacher may give directions in a way which warns pupils of a fault or reproves them gently for something that might be neglected.

"Don't forget to walk quietly down the hall."

"Be sure to write your name in the upper left hand corner of your paper."

"Don't forget to raise your hand before talking."

The teacher who illustrates this recurrent behavior has a pattern of giving _____ directions.

ADMONITORY OR REPROOF

Another teacher might give directions by extending approval to one pupil in a manner which implies other pupils also should behave the same.

"I like the way Jerry organizes his written reports."

"Saralie types her papers which makes them easy for me to read."

A teacher who behaves this way has a pattern of giving _____ directions.

OBLIQUE OR INDIRECT

These illustrations form the basis of a model for looking at some possible teacher behavior patterns in the category of directions. Perhaps from your analyses of various transcripts you have identified other patterns related to this same category. In any event, these patterns tend to affect pupils differently. In some situations the effect can be desirable, while in others it can be undesirable. As a review you may want to refer back to the paper on Systematic Analysis of Teaching Performance. It describes some possible effects of these patterns of giving directions.

STEP 43

PURPOSES

To provide an opportunity for the trainees to analyze and resolve process and content problems which are impeding group progress.

To provide an opportunity for the trainees to explore in depth their relationships with the teachers.

ACTIVITIES	OBJECTIVES
Seminar: 1 1/2 hours Practicum group meetings at this time allow for discussion of process and content problems which have evolved. Trainee Evaluation Form, page 248	The trainees will: 1. Interpret group and individual performance in terms of process and content 2. Interpret process and content considerations in their relationships with the teacher

TRAINER'S INFORMATION

This activity provides an opportunity for the trainees to get together as one group. It allows them to share experiences and discuss problems which they have encountered in their subgroups.

The trainees should be sensitive to and deal effectively with process problems in the here and now as they may arise from discussing their experience in the subgroups.

In preparation for Step 46, instruct the trainees to begin thinking individually of problem areas in their own school situations which may concern them when they attempt to implement the principles and practices of systematic and objective analysis of instruction. For example, problems may concern relevancy of the program to supervision or to the professional roles of the trainees, etc. The problem areas they identify will constitute seminar content for Step 46, Problems and Issues in Improving Instruction and Supervision.

Trainees also may want to discuss their weekly self-evaluations as a group. At this point it would be appropriate to distribute the final Trainee Evaluation Form and to sensitize the trainees to possible alternative ways of handling it (Step 47). This will give the trainees an opportunity to review the criteria for evaluation and to think about their evaluations of each other.

STEPS 44-45

PURPOSES

To increase individual trainee responsibility for completing the cycle with a teacher.

To continue summation of various aspects of the cycle into an integrated and meaningful whole.

ACTIVITIES	OBJECTIVES
Practicum: 4 hours each step	The trainees will:
Continue practice of the cycle of systematic and objective analysis of instruction	1. Demonstrate proficiency in performing each part of the total cycle in succession
At the beginning of Step 44 collect the self-analysis of growth papers	2. Demonstrate increasing competency to deal with process problems as they occur while interacting with a teacher
	3. Demonstrate proficiency in performing the conference as the culminating activity of the cycle

TRAINER'S INFORMATION

These sessions should continue in the same manner as begun in Step 41. That is, one trainee completes a cycle with a teacher during the practicum session. Then, another trainee from the subgroup completes a cycle during the next practicum.

Each trainee should make a special effort during these remaining sessions to shift, when necessary, between discussing tasks and process while conferring with the teacher.

STEP 46

PURPOSE

To provide the trainees with an opportunity to identify problem areas and discuss alternative solutions.

ACTIVITIES	OBJECTIVES
Seminar: 1 1/2 hours PROBLEMS AND ISSUES IN IMPROVING INSTRUCTION AND SUPERVISION	The trainees will: 1. Identify and interpret problem areas in supervision and instructional improvement 2. Identify alternative ways of solving these problems

TRAINER'S INFORMATION

Begin the seminar by having the trainees set goals for determining how they are going to deal with the problems which they have identified. The trainees should conduct the seminar in ways that will help them achieve the goals they have set.

Some typical problems with possible interpretations have been included, pages 241-246 to serve as guidelines for the trainer. It is to be expected the problems identified by any given group, while similar, will be different from those provided.

PROBLEMS AND ISSUES IN IMPROVING INSTRUCTION AND SUPERVISION

Problem: Systematic and objective analysis of instruction is not relevant to all grade levels, subject areas or varying supervisory roles.

Discussion: The essence of this problem is understanding the goals of systematic and objective analysis of instruction. The long-term goal is to create open and self-directed teachers. A more immediate goal is to improve instruction by changing some teacher behavior in the classroom. Therefore, systematic and objective analysis is not relevant at any grade level, or in any subject area, or supervisory role where the supervisory task is something other than the improvement of instruction.

You may recall the frequently made statement, "It is a good theory, but it won't work in practice." This is a fundamental error in logic. If the theory is good, it must work in practice or the practice is in error. If the theories and principles which form the foundation of systematic and objective analysis of instruction are sound, then the practice is relevant wherever the goal is the improvement of instruction.

A second consideration of relevancy is the assumption that human behavior is patterned. The analysis of teaching behavior can reveal the extent to which a specific instructional act is appropriate for a given group of learners. If this assumption is accepted, then, to the extent that one is able to make objective observations of patterns of teaching behavior, the practice of systematic and objective analysis is relevant.

In our experience thus far, we have yet to find a grade level, subject area, or supervisory role where the practice of systematic and objective analysis is not relevant to at least some degree.

Problem: As a principal, my role necessitates that I also be an evaluator of a teacher's competency. This makes it difficult or impossible for me to establish a trust relationship with my teachers for the improvement of instruction.

Discussion: One of the problems which may have been identified is the difficulty in perceiving which hat the principal may be wearing at any given time, the hat of the instructor or the hat of the evaluator.

Possible Problem Areas

In order to be effective as a supervisor with such an assignment, one must be able to distinguish between the two roles. The learner must perceive the principal behaving as an instructor if, indeed, his goal is the improvement of instruction. Conversely, to be an effective evaluator of instruction, he must be perceived as behaving in a way appropriate to an evaluator.

Why is this so? First, reexamine the components of a trust relationship. In order for a trust relationship to exist, each person must perceive the other as having his best interests at heart and as being competent for the task.

In this workshop an attempt has been made to assist each individual in improving the ways in which he communicates his intentions. The program has also attempted to assist him in improving his competencies as an instructional supervisor whose goal is the improvement of instruction. There are equally important and equally complex competencies which are associated with the evaluation of instruction.

If one has the competencies required for the task, if he is able to communicate his intentions effectively, and if he is predictable in his actions, then he at least has a chance to succeed in establishing a trust relationship providing he is willing to take the risks involved.

Risk taking is where the rub is. The role of the evaluator is often seen as safe and secure, whereas the role of the instructor is risky. Whether talking about a principal, a teacher, a parent, or anyone who has the opportunity to wear the two hats, the tendency is to grab the safe hat; the one which enables educators to sit in judgment, whenever they feel threatened in their role as an instructor.

As an example for the foregoing comments, consider the role of each group trainer. Usually, most members perceive him or her to be competent and sincere. Considerable progress probably has been made together in establishing a trust relationship. But at the conclusion of this workshop, the trainer will also be the evaluator for each member of his group. His ability to wear the proper hat at the proper time in an effective manner will demonstrate his solution to this problem.

Possible Problem Areas

Problem: The complete cycle in systematic and objective analysis of instruction takes so much time it is unlikely a supervisor would actually have the time to use it.

Discussion: It is impossible to predict which phase of the cycle any individual might think is most time consuming. Opinions seem to vary with individuals, from group to group and even from workshop to workshop. Why should this be so?

First, remember each person has been in a training session and not in actual practice. In order to take advantage of the training period, each phase of the cycle has been worked over in detail, even to the point of exaggeration. Although such detailed attention during the training session is advocated, in practice there is a danger of "beating the data to death." Therefore, one may expect any given phase of the cycle to be less time consuming in practice than the experiences thus far would indicate.

A second consideration is the individual trainer. Each person has a tendency to emphasize or overemphasize those parts of the cycle which his individual biography dictates. This is a natural situation and should in no way detract from his ability to perform the complete cycle. In fact, if he has spent an inordinate amount of time on any given phase while in training, this extra experience should facilitate his performance of that particular phase in a more efficient manner in practice.

For example, one trainer may spend a great deal of time with his group on the planning phase. In practice, this should enable the people from that group to be more adept at conducting a planning session quickly and effectively. Thus, the amount of time which the planning sessions appeared to require while in training was really an exaggeration.

A third consideration is the group training method. The group method is employed for a number of reasons, but the advantages of group work are always burdened by time consumption. In practice, a group probably will not be larger than two or three. The smaller group should allow more efficient use of time.

A fourth consideration is experience. The number one time consumer in early training sessions is the lack of focus. As an individual becomes more skilled in identifying patterns of behavior and more skilled in formulating successive approximations, his focus should improve to more efficiently utilize the time available.

Possible Problem Areas

A fifth consideration is reality. Sometimes an insurance salesman will say a person simply cannot afford to be without a certain policy. The logic is sound but the budget realities may not permit the luxury of logic. So it is possible that at times a person will perform only those phases of the cycle that time permits. He does the best he can. However, he should keep in mind the rationale for the complete cycle is sound and the closer he is able to approximate the complete cycle, the more effective he will be.

How can this problem of time be dealt with? If a person is fortunate enough to perform his supervisory tasks with someone who also has completed training in systematic and objective analysis, they should be able to critique one another's performance towards greater effectiveness and efficiency. If he does not have a colleague to assist him, he should remember that the goal of systematic and objective analysis is to create self-regulating, open, creative teachers. If he will aspire toward this same goal for himself, he will find ways to continually critique his own performance. This will allow him to become more effective and efficient within his time restrictions.

Finally, the supervisory cycle is a method and not a master of practice.

Problem: Many teachers return from workshops and find their ideas and enthusiasm resisted by administrators and other teachers.

Discussion: The essence of this problem is the dilemma associated with change. It can be assumed that any educator worthy of the name has a desire to improve his professional competencies; he has a desire to change. But because people are what they are, to <u>one</u> degree or another, they fear change. In short, the role of the change agent is to create a situation where the desire to change overcomes the fear of change. Therefore, the supervisor is a change agent and the principles practiced in this workshop were designed to make him a more effective change agent.

Now, what about those colleagues resisting new ideas and enthusiasm? Or even more important, how does one go back to this school and disseminate some rather powerful ideas without being destructive? One suggested way to deal with this problem is an attempt to play the role of the effective change agent. In other words, <u>practice</u> what he would <u>like</u> to preach. There is little difference in working with a

subordinate, a fellow teacher, a student teacher or a pupil in the classroom. The principles are the same. Try to develop trust, practice joint inquiry and show by examples what has been learned rather than by telling others how they should act.

Problem: Some teachers are unable to attend summer school workshops and therefore it will be difficult for them to learn the practice of systematic and objective analysis of instruction.

Discussion: The summer workshop facilitates an intensive involvement which is necessary to achieve a high degree of competency in all phases of systematic and objective analysis of instruction. At this time there is no program during the academic year which achieves the same objectives as the summer program. Why is the summer program so important?

First, there is economy in group training. In terms of money alone, it would probably cost about ten times as much to duplicate the summer program during the academic year. It is also doubtful if the program objectives could be achieved within the same total time expenditure. This point about economy of time in training should not be confused with the economy of time in practice discussed in the third problem.

Second, the group training method is highly effective. The skills one learns in working in a group are applicable to skills required in almost any supervisory situation. Also, how would one duplicate the opportunity to observe, analyze and critique the performances of such a diverse group? It would be difficult to calculate the number of situations and problems which someone has the opportunity to be involved in simply because he is a member of a group.

Another consideration is the first week of the workshop. The only effective way to learn about and become more skilled in interpersonal relations is to become involved with other people with the intent of studying relationships. Experience in groups with similar goals, but meeting only once a week, shows less achievement with a comparable time investment. The intent this summer was for the group to generate data from which certain principles could be learned.

Another consideration is continuity. There are some distinct advantages in being able to observe the day-by-day problems, changes and progress in a given supervisory situation. It

is doubtful if continuity could be achieved in an academic year training program. Now, in practice, such a degree of continuity may not be pursued, but for training purposes, continuity seems to be highly desirable.

The above considerations do not rule out the possibility that a good training program could be designed and carried out during the school year. However, the program must account for the disadvantages and compensate for them or end up with considerably different outcomes.

If assistance is needed in establishing a training program to be carried out during the school year, contact the Director of Dissemination and Installation Services, Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, 710 S.W. Second Avenue, Portland, Oregon, 97204.

STEP 47

PURPOSE

To provide final feedback to program trainees.

ACTIVITIES

Practicum: 4 hours

Evaluation by both trainers and trainees

Trainee Evaluation Form, page 248

OBJECTIVES

The trainees will:

1. Write a self-evaluation of their own performance in the program
2. Write an evaluation of the performance of each other group member
3. Compare their self-evaluations with the evaluations from the group

TRAINER'S INFORMATION

To this point the trainees have received constant feedback on their performances. As a result, they should be able to evaluate accurately their own ability and potential, as well as that of the other trainees.

This activity is designed to allow:

1. Each trainee to rate himself by using the Trainee Evaluation Form
2. The trainees, collectively and verbally, to make a composite rating of each other

In making the composite evaluation, the trainer may write a separate evaluation on each trainee or participate with the group.

TRAINEE EVALUATION FORM

Workshop Location: Group Trainer:

Rating Scale: Date:

4 The present performance level is HIGH
3 The present performance level is GOOD
2 The present performance level is ADEQUATE
1 The present performance level is LOW
0 NO OPPORTUNITY to observe or perform

Objectives:

1. Demonstrate provisionally different behaviors as a means to internalizing learning
2. Demonstrate interpersonal communication skills such as paraphrasing, perception checks, behavior descriptions, describing feelings and freeing responses
3. Demonstrate increased interdependence in a group by applying the principles of effective group process
4. Demonstrate skill in establishing interpersonal relationships with others by applying the principles for building trust
5. Plan instructional objectives with a teacher which include observable pupil behavior, conditions for learning and criteria of acceptable performance
6. Observe a teaching performance and record in verbatim transcript most of the verbal and nonverbal behavior
7. Analyze the transcript from the observation for patterns of teaching and learning behavior
8. Plan strategy for a conference based on analysis of the transcript
9. Conduct a conference which enables the teacher to gain insight into his teaching and possible alternative behaviors
10. Share reactions to the critical analysis of one's own and others' performance in relation to the objectives of this program

Objectives: / Trainees	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Total
1.											
2.											
3.											
4.											
5.											
6.											
7.											
8.											
9.											
10.											

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